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ART. I. Captain Burney's *Chronological History of the Voyages and Discoveries in the South Sea*, Vol. II.

[*Art. concluded from p.* 35.]

EXCEPTING our own countrymen, no competitors had disturbed the Spaniards in the South Sea until the death of Philip II. At that time, the Hollanders, whose spirit and industry had created a powerful marine and a flourishing commerce, notwithstanding the exhausting war which they sustained at home, and who had already attacked Spain in India by fleets which sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, sent out five ships on the same destination by a western route. Mismanagement, however, delayed them in the Strait of Magalhanes; and when at last they reached the South Sea, the squadron was separated, and its design entirely frustrated. One of the scattered vessels steered for Japan, for the purpose of trade; where the pilot, William Adams, was forcibly detained in the service of the emperor. De Cordes, who commanded this unfortunate expedition, and who was killed by the natives of the Island Santa Maria, seems to have been a man of little ability, and of a peculiar turn of mind: before he left the Strait of Magalhanes, he instituted an order of chivalry, called "The Lion unchained;" and during a heavy fall of snow, in the midst of a southern winter, he ordered all his men on shore to attend a Thanksgiving Sermon.

A commander of very different character conducted the next voyage, undertaken (like the other) at the expence of a company of Dutch Merchants. Olivier Van Noort, with four vessels, containing 248 persons, sailed from Helvoetsluys a few months after De Cordes, viz. in August 1598: but he did not arrive on the coast of Brazil till the succeeding February, and then judged it too late in the southern season to proceed to the Strait. He therefore sought, but in vain, for the island of St. Helena, where he desired to winter; and

after having traversed the Atlantic for some time, he found himself again unexpectedly on the coast of Brazil. Here all was under Spanish influence, and consequently hostile; and the ships, in July, proceeded towards the Strait. Having staid about five weeks in Port Desire, and made many unsuccessful efforts to enter the Strait, they at last accomplished that object in November, 1599; the whole of their voyage having been a proof of the imperfect state of navigation at the end of the sixteenth century.

The harsh and unfeeling character of Van Noort is evident from his severe discipline throughout the voyage; and especially from his Council having condemned the officer next to him in command, to be left on shore in the Strait, there to perish, on account of disobedience: but the cool indifference, with which the unprovoked massacre of a small tribe of natives in the Strait is related, seems to indicate that the feelings of his journalist and of his crew were as impregnable as his own. The cruelties which the Dutch and Spaniards had mutually exercised, in their naval depredations, had perhaps hardened their minds beyond any former example among Europeans; at least we cannot but endeavour to discover some such palliation of the deed which is here narrated by Captain B. After he has mentioned that some shots were causelessly fired at a few natives, who appeared on the south shore of the Strait, he observes:

'The reader has just been made acquainted with a strange instance of wanton barbarity; but the transaction which is next to be related must be ranked among the most flagrant and deplorable acts of senseless cruelty, which human nature has at any time been found capable of perpetrating.

'On the smallest of the two *Penguin Islands* (which is the Northernmost) some natives were seen, and two boats were sent to them from the ships. As the boats drew near, about forty natives, who were collected on a high cliff, made signs to the Hollanders not to advance, and threw to them some penguins from the cliff, imagining that the purpose of their coming was to get a supply of those birds. Finding, however, that the strangers would not be so deterred, and that they continued to approach, they shot arrows at them. The Hollanders fired their musquets, and the natives, being driven from the cliff, fled for refuge to a cavern in the side of a hill, where it seems they had before placed their women and children. The Hollanders, having landed, followed the natives, and determined to enter their place of retreat. The steepness of the ground rendered the cavern difficult of access, and the entrance was defended by the natives with bows and arrows; but it did not afford protection against the fire arms of the assailants, who used them with the most unrelenting ferocity, and without remorse persisted in their purpose; receiving no other hurt than three or four of their number being wounded

wounded with arrows. The natives, notwithstanding the inferiority of their arms and the dreadful havock made among them, continued to fight in defence of their women and children with desperate and undiminished courage; and not before the last man of them was killed, did the Hollanders obtain entrance. Within the cavern they found a number of miserable women and children lying one upon the other, the mothers having formed barricades of their own bodies to protect their children from the musquetry; and many, both of the women and children, were killed or wounded.

'This deed, which no epithet can adequately characterise, seems to have been the effect of a blind undistinguishing thirst of revenge for the death of the three men killed by the natives at *Port Desire*. In the original account, the whole transaction is calmly related without any remark or a single term expressive of compunction or pity.

'The tribe thus exterminated (for so in effect it was, the part remaining being so utterly defenceless and unprotected) were people nearly of the same stature as the common people in *Holland*, and the men were remarked to be broad and high chested. From among the children, four boys and two girls were taken on board the ships and kept. One of the boys afterwards learnt to speak the Dutch language; and from him it was understood, that the name of the tribe from whence he sprung was *Enoo*, and of the country which they inhabited, *Cossi*: the Island on which the Hollanders found them he said was named *Talke*, which signified, in the language of his country, an Ostrich: the other Island he called *Castemme*; an animal supposed to be the Guanaco, he called *Cassoni*; a Penguin, *Compogre*; and some other bird, *Oripogre*. The skins of these birds they dressed as neatly as an European furrier could have done. From the same boy they learnt that the people of his country dwelt in caverns dug in the earth; and that the natives lived in tribes. He named four tribes besides his own; i. e. the *Kemenites*, the place of whose habitations was named *Karay*; the *Kennekas*, inhabitants of *Karamay*; the *Karaike* tribe, inhabiting a place named *Morine*; the people of these three tribes were of the same stature as those of the *Enoo* tribe; but a race living farther within the country, who were named *Tiremenen*, and their territory *Coin*, were 'great people like giants, being from 10 to 11 feet high; and they came to make war against the other tribes, whom they reproached for being eaters of Ostriches.' This slender portion of unimportant information was the only benefit the Hollanders derived from the extermination of the unfortunate tribe of *Enoo*.'

After a tedious navigation of a year and a half, Van Noort entered the South Sea, appointing the island Santa Maria for a common rendezvous in case of separation. He procured provisions at the island Mocha; and coming to Santa Maria, he found there a Spanish coaster, which he captured after a long chace to the northward. The southerly winds, almost incessant on the coast of Chili, precluded him from returning to Santa Maria to seek one of his consorts, from whom he was therefore finally separated. He then proceeded

up the coast, taking a few insignificant prizes, till at the equator it was judged dangerous 'again to approach the land of America;' and the ships, which were now reduced to two, the Mauritius, (in which was Van Noort,) and the Eendracht yacht, steered for Cocos Island. In their attempt, however, to find this island, they failed, as formerly in their search for St. Helena, and resolved to stand on for the Philippines. Here commenced another scene of mischievous warfare at sea, and occasionally on the islands, so that the Government at Manila had sufficient notice of the approach of an enemy. Two ships were consequently fitted out to attack the Hollanders; and as they were commanded by De Morga, the historian of the Phillippines, a narrative of the remarkable sea-fight which ensued has been preserved by both parties:

'As the two Holland ships were lying at anchor under shelter of the land just to the North of the entrance of *Manila Bay*, the wind being fresh from the ENE, two sail were seen in the passage, standing out of the Bay. Van Noort sent a boat, with a supply of men, to the Eendracht, with orders for her to get under sail, to speak the strange vessels; but it soon became apparent that they were ships of force, and that it was their design to speak the Hollanders; the boat therefore returned to the Admiral.

'In Olivier Van Noort's ship, the Mauritius, there were at this time 55 persons, and in the Eendracht only 25. It was judged necessary to receive the enemy under sail, and as there was not time for the Mauritius to take up her anchor, the cable was cut. The Spanish ships, being fitted for the occasion, and fresh out of port, were fully manned. The *Penible Voyage* supposes they had between 400 and 500 men in each ship. Half that number would no doubt be a more reasonable estimate. They steered for the Hollanders, who fired upon them in their approach, which the Spaniards could not return on account of the direction in which they were steering: the strength of the wind likewise, which was on their starboard side, obliged them to keep their lee ports shut. The Spanish Admiral, De Morga, took the resolution to run right on board the Dutch Admiral, which seems to have been executed with some roughness. The Spaniards entered Van Noort's ship, and the Dutch being overpowered by numbers retreated from the open deck, and from their close quarters harassed the enemy. The Spaniards having possession of the deck, disfurnished the main and mizen masts of sails and rigging, and took down the flag of Holland (white, blue, and orange, with the arms of Count Maurice). The commander of the Eendracht, when he saw his Admiral's colours struck, believing that the victory was decided in favour of the Spaniards, set all his sails, and endeavoured to escape, and was pursued by the Spanish Almiranta.

'In the Dutch Admiral's ship, however, the Spaniards did not succeed in making their enemy submit, though they remained masters of the open deck six hours. At the end of that time, Van Noort

Noort told his people they must come out and fight the Spaniards, or he would set fire to the magazine and blow up the ship. Antonio de Morga relates, that at this time the after-part of the Dutch Admiral's ship took fire, which rendered it necessary for him to withdraw his men, and to separate the two ships, which he did, taking with him the enemy's flag. After Van Noort's ship was cleared of the enemy, the engagement was renewed with cannon, but was not of much longer continuance; for De Morga's ship 'being weakly built,' became open in the fore part, and took water in so fast, that in a short time she went down. The Dutch account here first mentions that their ship had taken fire, which, having time now to attend to, they succeeded in extinguishing, 'our Lord God,' says Van Noort's journal, 'most mercifully saving us from these imminent perils of the enemy and fire.' The greater part of the crew of the Spanish Admiral were saved by country boats, which they had in attendance, and by a boat which they had taken from the Dutch Admiral. Some of the Spaniards swam to Van Noort's ship, begging for mercy and assistance; but they did not obtain either. Those who came within reach of the Hollanders were knocked on the head, or killed with pikes, and guns were fired at others whilst swimming in the water. This inhuman proceeding is not complained of in the Spanish account; and in fact, the Spaniards had but little claim upon the compassion of the Hollanders. The circumstance just related is not mentioned by De Morga; but in the Dutch journal, pains have been taken that it should not escape notice, the reputation of destroying Spaniards being much more prized by the Dutch Commander, than the praise of showing them lenity.

'Antonio de Morga, and those of his people who remained, went for shelter that night to a small uninhabited Island named *Fortuna*, about six leagues SSW. from the entrance of the *Bay of Manila*. De Morga states the loss of people in the Capitana to be fifty, including the drowned with those killed in battle. The event of his ship sinking, it is probable, was as much owing to the shock received in boarding as to damage suffered from shot in the action. In Olivier Van Noort's ship five men were killed outright, and 26 wounded. Their associate, the Eendracht, did not escape so cheaply, but was captured early in the day by the Spanish Almiranta. When the ship of the Spanish Admiral sunk, the Almiranta, with her prize, were about two leagues distant from Van Noort; but he did not think his ship in a condition to attempt her rescue; neither did the Spanish Almiranta make any endeavour to attack Van Noort, for which De Morga has severely censured him in his history.

'As soon as Van Noort could get any sails in order, he directed his course for the *Island Borneo*. The Eendracht was taken to *Manila*, where, by the Governor's order, Captain Lambert Biesman and his ship's company were all executed as pirates and rebels; it being as much a matter of course as if it had been settled by mutual compact, that the two nations should show no mercy to each other.'

Van Noort, having purchased necessaries at Borneo, now steered homewards, and arrived at Rotterdam nearly three years after his departure; his ship being the first which had circumnavigated the globe.

'The voyage of Olivier Van Noort contributed little to Geography; and impartially considered, neither this, nor the Voyage of the Five Ships of Rotterdam which preceded it, can give an advantageous opinion of the maritime knowledge and management of the Hollanders at that time. Both the expeditions are full of interesting events, but that of Olivier Van Noort is stained with many instances of shocking barbarity. Nevertheless it added to the reputation of his countrymen for enterprize both warlike and commercial, and therefore met with great favour from them.'

The next expedition here narrated is that of Vizcaino, who in 1602 was dispatched from Acapulco to examine the western coast of California, with a view to some establishment there for the convenience of the Philippine Trade. This voyage was apparently undertaken purely for discovery, which was to commence from Cape San Lucas: but religion seems to have been a real or pretended motive; and consequently unfavourable winds at the outset are assigned to the following origin:

'It is well known,' says Torquemada, 'that these storms were raised by the enemy of the human kind, to prevent this armada from proceeding farther to discover new lands, that the natives might not be converted to our Catholic faith; but so great a zeal prevailed through the whole armada, that there was not in it a single man who would not have chosen to perish rather than to desist from the enterprise.'

By patience, however, this evil influence seems to have been subdued; and the squadron, consisting of four vessels, proceeded slowly up the coast. In this progress, the natives were not treated with unnecessary severity, and the voyagers seem to have been awake to observation.—An anecdote of the sociable nature of the Pelican proves that this bird is not unworthy of the patronage of emblematic Heraldry; though, like many other birds, she feeds her young in reality from the proper receptacle, and not with her own blood. At the island of Ascencion, it is related that the natives tie up a Pelican for the sake of procuring fish, which is furnished to the captive by other pelicans, 'in greater abundance than he can consume.'

Vizcaino appears to have extended his examination to about 40° N. Lat. and in his return seems to have had good opportunity for making accurate observations on the coast, which is delineated with great exactness in a chart inserted by Captain

Captain B.; being a copy of that of Vizcaino, which was not given to the world till 1802, and then in illustration of a late Spanish voyage. On this occasion, Vizcaino's Journal escaped from the *Archivo General de Indias*, a repository at Seville, where all such relations and charts are hidden till some very extraordinary motive draws them forth. This chart is a valuable addition to geography; and Captain B. has not failed to compare it with others, which have been formed with more general science, but with less particular knowlege of this coast.—Vizcaino intended to have established a settlement, but died while making preparation; and the design was not pursued by the Spanish government.

In describing the track between the Philippines and New Spain, Antonio de Morga (the adversary of Van Noort) mentions two islands as seldom seen, called *Rica de Oro*, rich in gold, and *Rica de Plata*, rich in silver. These tempting appellations have provoked much fruitless search and inquiry: but at length Captain Burney, having traced the origin of the story to the Japanese, and examined the subsequent investigations of the Spaniards (as preserved in a scarce manuscript), has consigned these islands to the class of fabulous. Two miserable rocks, not far from their reputed position, maintain the name and memory of *Rica de Oro* and *Rica de Plata* in modern charts.

The voyage of Quiros, in 1606, is one of those which contributed considerably to the knowlege of lands in the South Sea, and has been celebrated accordingly. He discovered the since famous Otaheite, calling it *Sagittaria*; and De Torres, his second in command, persevering in the object of the voyage after he had parted from Quiros, actually saw the real *Terra Australis*, or Great Southern Continent, sometimes improperly called *New Holland*.

Quiros's discoveries have heretofore rested on narratives so imperfect, that it was scarcely known whether one or two voyages were made by him after the year 1600. Fortunately, however, the manuscript Journal of De Torres, second in command, but first in the merit of discovery, has been preserved, and communicated to Captain Burney by Mr. Dalrymple. With this aid, and supported by his own personal knowlege of the place, Captain B. has clearly settled from the comparison of various considerations, that Sagittaria is really the modern Otaheite; and, from the position of that and other ascertained points, he has been enabled to supply the imperfection of the narrative, and to give a consistent view of the discoveries made in this voyage, the track of which is accordingly delineated in the map facing the title page of the

present volume. The adventures of Quiros and De Torres at the several islands on which they landed are very interesting; and the information imparted by a chieftain of Taumaco was not only intelligible at the time, but its authenticity has even been confirmed by some of the discoveries of Captain Cook. —The mind of Quiros seems to have been rather amiable than energetic:

'The character of Quiros as a navigator and a discoverer is unquestionable. In other respects, his abilities were, if not below mediocrity, by no means equal to the task of forming settlements in newly-conquered countries. Though a passionate admirer of the natives of the *South Sea Islands*, and acquainted with their manners, his conduct towards them, independent of its injustice, has all the character of levity and inexperience. His want of firmness likewise disqualified him from exercising or preserving the authority of a Commander; and to this weakness it may be attributed that his success in discovery, instead of leading to his advancement, proved to him a constant source of disappointment.'

We can scarcely agree with Captain B. as to the injustice here attributed to Quiros. Contests may and frequently do happen between parties who may be both in the right, especially when they are ignorant of each other's meaning; and if the previous question, whether it be fit and proper to institute voyages of discovery, shall be determined in the affirmative, we cannot think that a civilized navigator has not a full right to pursue his object by landing where he pleases, for the purposes of procuring provision or of general investigation, and to defend himself promptly against any attack. However detestable unnecessary severity must always be, perhaps too much forbearance has been exercised in late voyages; and the death of Captain Cook, and of the companions of Pérouse at Navigator's Islands, may be ascribed to too great lenity of conduct towards uncivilized tribes: who in general may be justly charged with an inordinate desire of pillage, and frequently of massacre. We are sensible that we are venturous in dissenting from Captain B. on this question, on which it is in his power to produce his own experience against the necessity of severity, which he may call injustice, or of punishment, which he may term revenge: but we are certain that the difference between our opinion and his lies within narrow limits; and we can readily suppose that, in a book likely to be at hand in all future voyages of discovery, he deemed it right to inculcate a leaning to the merciful extreme.

A remark of Captain Cook recorded in this voyage (p. 300) must not be omitted; "A *Port* is a vague term, like many

others in Geography." All the definitions of Geography should certainly be made more exact than they are at present, in order that the science might proceed with aid similar to that which is afforded by the Nomenclature of Chemistry and of Botany: but it is not wonderful that such elementary assistance should here be wanting; since the studious geographer has usually been a different person from the practical navigator, who must furnish the materials of the science, which suffers from this inevitable want of communication. An instance of this fact appears in the sequel of the voyage before us:

'When M. de Bougainville, in 1768, made the South coast of *New Guinea*, the want of information concerning the discoveries of Torres made him beat up against the wind, with a reduced stock of provisions, to get round the East end of the land, which when he had weathered it, he named *Cape Deliverance*.

'This forms a strong case, among the numerous ones which have occurred of the same nature, for showing the utility of a general and public repository wherein to lodge and preserve all new acquisitions in maritime geography; and points out as a reasonable and necessary regulation, that the navigation laws of every maritime country should prescribe to seamen the duty of communicating all new information that could contribute to the improvement of Navigation, and especially the discovery of new lands, rocks, banks, or shoals.

'Within the last twenty years, many discoveries have been made of Islands, concerning which no information has been transmitted by the discoverers to any department of the government of their country. Much knowledge of this kind has been obtained which has never arrived at any kind of public notice, and will be lost for the want of regular and appointed channels of communication.'

Captain B.'s proposition affords an excellent hint for the future: for the past, we can only have recourse to such works as that now before us, but which, unfortunately for navigation, has not a parallel in accuracy and historical research.

The voyages which occupy the remainder of this volume are mostly Dutch; that of Joris Spilbergen in 1614, and of Le Maire and Schouten immediately afterward. Spilbergen's expedition is little remarkable for discovery; though it contributed somewhat to geography by an improved chart of the Strait of Magalhanes, by which western route Spilbergen carried aid to his countrymen, then contending with the Portuguese in the Moluccas.—In this voyage is mentioned and delineated the Balza (or Raft) of the South Sea; and Captain B. has inserted a representation of this most remarkable effort of uncivilized navigation; as also, by way of comparison, the improved Balza described by Don Ant. De Ulloa.

Ulloa. These Balzas, which are rafts of the same construction as Catamarans; are so contrived as to keep the sea, to carry sail very near the wind, and to steer without a helm; all which is effected by means of *Guares*, or sliding planks, skilfully applied by thrusting them down between the timbers of which the raft is composed.—Although Ulloa's book is very accessible, this principle has in our time been re-produced in England as a new invention, but with a most unfortunate misapplication to shipping instead of rafts: an attempt which has failed, and which perhaps it is not worth while to preserve from oblivion, except as a matter of history, and as a warning to any future imitator.

The voyage of Le Maire and Schouten was undertaken in consequence of an association of intelligent merchants, who, from frequent consultation together, became persuaded of the existence of a passage to the south of the Strait of Magalhanes; and who therefore asked and obtained from the States of Holland, an exclusive privilege of making four voyages to any places newly discovered by them:

'The views of the new Company in this arduous undertaking, may be said to have been wholly commercial. They fitted out two ships, whose force was not greater than was required for their security among the uncivilised inhabitants of the countries they expected to fall in with. The projected voyage was necessarily to be one of discovery, because they were restricted from going to India by the known routes.'

This partnership of merchants was called *Compagnie Australe*, or Southern Company. The vessels fitted out for the voyage were the Eendracht of 360 tons and 65 men, and the Horne (a galliot) of 110 tons and 22 men. Jacob le Maire was the president or principal merchant, and Willem Schouten was the patron or master mariner; and the reputation of this voyage has caused a contest between them and their friends, each contending for superiority of renown. Hence distinct narratives have been published; in substance however the same, and in the opinion of Captain B. all taken from Schouten's Sea Journal. They sailed from the Texel in June 1615; and in October they crossed the Equinoctial Line, and the object of the voyage was declared to the crews. They passed about a month in Port Desire, where the Horne galliot was burnt by accident.—The ship's company seems to have been selected for the voyage with more discrimination than is usual. We find among them fiddlers and dancers to amuse the native Islanders of the South Sea, and trumpeters for occasions of imposing ceremony; and the sketches as well as charts preserved in the Journal prove that a drafts-

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man was not wanting.' Captain B. has inserted several etchings, as full of information as the narrative itself. Port Desire is the subject of one of these drawings, which are thus described:

'Most of the drawings of places given by the early Dutch navigators are rude and disproportionate representations: but by their method of combining map and picture, though done at the expence both of perspective and correct measurement, much information and a clear general idea are communicated. The figures introduced are likewise defective in point of neatness and correctness, but are seldom without character.'

The combination of Map and Picture, here mentioned, is much less in use than it deserves: for a confined plan, or for representing buildings, nothing equals it, as those must be sensible who are acquainted with the sketches of several fields of battle, and Netherland towns, inserted in Tindal's Continuation of Rapin; and even the old Plan of London by Aggas in 1570, in all its rudeness, gives a far more lively idea of the object represented than any modern plan of modern London will convey to posterity fifty years hence.

Le Maire and Schouten left Port Desire 16 January 1616; and, boldly passing the latitude of the eastern entrance of the Strait of Magalhanes, on the 24 January they discovered the island called in honour of their country Staten-Land, and the strait which separtes it from Terra del Fuego. This passage was named from the President, the Strait of Le Maire.—Having passed Cape Horne, so named from the native place of Schouten, they directed their course northward to about the 15th deg. of south latitude; and then steering westward on that parallel, they discovered successively several islands, at which they procured little supply of water and provisions, the natives being in general unfriendly. In stretching across this extensive ocean, they fell in with a large double canoe, fitted with a triangular sail, and containing 25 persons: in chasing which the Hollanders imprudently used their musquetry, and so terrified the Indians that many of them leaped overboard and perished: but the Dutch seem to have felt due compunction for this catastrophe, and made such atonement to the survivors as was in their power. The author has a striking observation on this affair;

'This unfortunate adventure is the heaviest reproach which can be brought against the Voyage of Le Maire and Schouten, and is the more blameable as it might have been expected that from a sympathetic regard, independent of general considerations of humanity, they would have respected the enterprising navigators of the *South Sea*; a character to which these Islanders were well entitled, who

who, without compass, or any of the aids from science which enable the navigators of other countries to guide themselves with safety, ventured beyond the sight of land.'

An island which they called Cocos Island, from its cocoa-nut trees, was next discovered; and here the Hollanders obtained by barter some provision: but this intercourse was closed by a treacherous attack of the natives, which however was not revenged.—Of this island an etching is given.—A few days afterward, they discovered another island, which they named Horne Island; and here they found a convenient watering place, and remained ten days. A friendly communication was kept up with the natives, whose peculiar and ceremonious manners form a remarkable trait of uncivilized life, and are described, as are also the adventures of the voyagers at this place, in a very lively strain of narrative. This island was seen by Captain Wilson in 1801.

The Hollanders now resolved to sail to the north of New Guinea, being ignorant of the southern passage discovered by De Torres. Much intercourse took place with the natives of the country and of the neighbouring islands, and Schouten's chart of that coast is a valuable piece of geography.—In September, they had the satisfaction of meeting a Dutch ship, one of Spilbergen's fleet, and at this time 85 persons remained out of the 87 who had sailed from Holland; a singular instance of good fortune, combined with prudent conduct. At Java the voyage terminated, to the eternal disgrace of the Dutch East India Company, who confiscated and seized the Eendracht; sending home Le Maire and Schouten, of whom the former died in the passage.

'This (observes the author,) was a most cruel requital for men to meet with from their own countrymen, in return for having, with superior sagacity and spirit, undertaken and accomplished an enterprise so hazardous and so reputable, the lustre of which continues to this day to reflect honour on their country. It might have been expected that the licence which the *Compagnie Australe* had obtained from the States General, and from the Prince of Orange, would have obviated any charge of illegality from being made against the voyage: but the President of *Bantam* and his Council seem to have coloured their unworthy proceedings by professing to disbelieve the account of a new passage into the *South Sea* having been discovered. The Journalist of Admiral Spilbergen's voyage, J. Cornelisz May, who was at this time Master Mariner of the ship Amsterdam, mentioning the arrival of Le Maire and Schouten, says, in a spirit of rivalry, from which the most honourable pursuits do not exempt men, "These people had not in so long a voyage discovered any unknown countries, nor any place for new commerce, nor any thing which could be of benefit to the public, although they

they pretended that they had discovered a passage shorter than the usual passage: which is very improbable, inasmuch as it took them fifteen months and three days to make their voyage to *Ternate*, though with a single ship.—These usurpers of the names of passages into the *South Sea*, were much astonished that the commander Spilbergen, with a fleet of large ships, had arrived so long before them at *Ternate*."

'The ships Amsterdam and Zeeland sailed from *Bantam* for *Holland* on the 15th of December.

'On the 31st of December, Jacob Le Maire died: it is not said of what disease, nor is any previous illness mentioned; but mortification at the treatment he had experienced, must be supposed to have had a great share in shortening his days. He was aged, at the time of his death, only 31 years. The ill-founded prejudices of J. Cornelisz May were by this time eradicated. After relating the decease of Le Maire, he adds, "for whom our Admiral and all of us were greatly grieved, as he was a man gifted with rare experience in affairs of navigation." Whatever doubt might have been at first entertained concerning the veracity of Le Maire and Schouten's account of their voyage, it was impossible that it should not soon have been removed by associating with them in the same ship.—

'It has not been discovered in any relation of the voyage of Le Maire and Schouten, or in any biographical or other account which has been met with in drawing up the narrative here given, that any compensation was made by the Dutch East India Company, either to the *Compagnie Australe* for the seizure of their ship, or to those who performed the voyage in her, for the interruption, loss, and inconvenience, which must have been sustained by them in consequence of the seizure.'

At the conclusion of this interesting voyage, Captain B., according to his constant practice, has given a dissertation on the situation of the discoveries of Le Maire and Schouten; and he has also inserted a vocabulary of words collected in the several islands by Le Maire. For the immediate purposes of future navigators, the use of this latter is apparent; and navigation itself has been no small gainer by the application of many points of general knowlege; in which it is one of the greatest desiderata to settle the origin or early pedigree of nations, which can only be effected by etymological deduction. The words in the vocabulary of Le Maire have been clearly traced to a Malay origin, and the Malays themselves by the same means to Arabia; whence, therefore, all the islands of the South Sea have been peopled. The trade-wind, constant from the east, seems to render this conjecture improbable: but let us see how Captain B. obviates the objection:

'As the general course of the trade-wind is contrary to the navigation from the *East Indies* to the Islands in the *South Sea*, it seems

seems at first sight highly improbable that the supposed migration can have happened; but in truth, this seeming difficulty forms the strongest argument in its favour. The inhabitants of Islands situated in a trade-wind would always be cautious how they ventured to leeward beyond their knowledge, for fear that bad weather or currents might prevent their return. This consideration would have the greater effect in preventing emigration Westward from *America*, as the Islands in the Eastern part of the *Pacific* are few in number, small, and at great intervals of distance. On the contrary, the prospect of being able to return at pleasure is a constant temptation to venture to Windward. It is probable that even their fishing, if at a distance from land, would be always carried on to Windward; and that to this cause is to be attributed their canoes being so admirably adapted for going to Windward. Under these circumstances there can be little difficulty in believing that the Islands so thickly strewed in the Western parts of the *Pacific Ocean*, have served, in a gradual progress of discovery, as stepping-stones for population to travel Eastward from *India*.

'The population of the *South Sea Islands* would furnish proof, if evidence were wanting, that the Malays have at all times been better navigators than the natives of *New Guinea*. The people of the race last mentioned have been found only among the Islands which are nearly contiguous to *New Guinea*, whilst those of Malay origin have spread themselves to all parts of the South Sea: and in the Eastern and more remote Islands from *India*, no other inhabitants are found than people with long hair, whose language bears decisive marks of a Malay origin.'

In a concluding chapter, we find a notice of the *Terra Australis*, extracted from Thevenot. "*La Terre Australe qui fait maintenant une cinquieme partie du Monde, a esté decouverte a plusieurs fois. Les Chinois en ont eu connoissance il y a long temps, car l'on void que Marco Polo marque deux grandes Isles au Sud Est de Java, ce qu'il avoit appris apparemment des Chinois.*" 'The Southern Land, which now makes a fifth part of the world, has been discovered at various times. The Chinese had knowledge of it long ago; for we see that Marco Polo marks too great Islands to the SE. of Java, which it is probable that he learnt from the Chinese."—Thevenot's *Terre Australe* seems among us to be usually termed New Holland; but it is time that our geographers should distinctly call it by some proper name; whether the *Southern Continent*, or any other.

In considering what portion of deliberate praise ought to be given to Captain B.'s laborious and most useful work, we could not avoid adverting to certain deficiencies in the history of navigation, suggested perhaps by our perusal of the present volume. Except Falconer's Dictionary, we possess no book of reference on the subject; though the notorious difficulty

difficulty of conceiving the fashion of the galley of the antients should have taught us how evanescent is the unrecorded knowlege of once familiar things. So great is our want of precise definition even at the present day, that *wherries*, which at Portsmouth and in the Thames are boats sharply built for rowing, about 23 feet long, are at Dublin a species of decked sloops, of 30 or 40 tons burthen. Of *Caravelas*, Captain B. has inserted an explanation, (p. 457,) but we apprehend that his definition is scarcely accurate. Instead of a 'vessel rigged principally with *triangular* sails,' he should have said, ' with a *square sail* (Cara-vela) on the foremast.' Antient representations of shipping might be found: such as the Armada-tapestry in the House of Lords, and the seals of our maritime corporate towns; and investigation would no doubt discover other materials.

The form of shipping and of the rigging is among the causes of improvement: the effect also we should be glad to be enabled to appreciate, by a comparative statement of the time usually consumed in some well known voyage, and of the loss of shipping sustained in it in former and in modern times. We would recommend it to Captain B., whose History of Discovery indicates so much collateral reading, to extend his investigation to this subject. The voyage to and from the East Indies has been prodigiously shortened within the memory of man *.

We ought not to conclude this article without remarking the liberal allowance of plates in the present volume, which contains eight charts and six other cuts and etchings. — We have not had the satisfaction of learning that any capable person is pursuing the plan marked out by Captain Burney in the preface to his first volume, by which distinct portions of the ocean might become the particular study of different individuals: but the propriety of the suggestion is evident, since we see that the entire attention of Captain B. has been usefully bestowed on the South Sea discoveries. Lighter compilations, by misleading the mariner, would be rather injurious than beneficial.

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* The Medusa Frigate, Captain Sir John Gore, had an extraordinarily rapid voyage to and from India in 1805-6, when she carried out the late Marquis Cornwallis as Governor General. On her return she ran from the Ganges to the Lizard in 84 days, two of which were spent at anchor in St. Helena roads, so that in 82 days she traversed a space of 13,831 miles; *i. e.* at the average rate of seven miles in an hour for the whole voyage. Of her passage out, which was also unusually quick, we cannot at present state the particulars with precision.

A notice prefixed to this volume indicates the farther labours which may be expected from the author; and it is well worthy of attentive perusal as containing, in the modest form of explanation, judicious precepts for the guidance of those who may hereafter pursue the same design. A third volume, we are told, will probably bring the history down to the commencement of the present reign.

Rick.

ART. II. *An Inquiry into the Changes induced on Atmospheric Air*, by the Germination of Seeds, the Vegetation of Plants, and the Respiration of Animals. By Daniel Ellis. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Murray. 1807.

THE object of this volume is to give a statement of the discoveries which have been made by modern chemists, respecting the change which the atmosphere experiences from the processes of germination, vegetation, and respiration. Although the subject is of the highest interest, and has exercised the genius of some of the first philosophers of the present age, it is confessedly still involved in much obscurity; we are not unfrequently left entirely to the guidance of conjecture; and in those cases in which facts and experiments are adduced, they are sometimes directly contradictory to each other.

Mr. Ellis divides his work into six chapters; the first of which treats on the change induced on the air by the germination of seeds. The principal facts ascertained on this point are, that a certain degree of heat and moisture is absolutely requisite for germination; that in an early stage of the process, the oxygenous part of the atmosphere becomes so likewise; and that the air, in which seeds have germinated, is found to have lost a part of its oxygen, and to have acquired carbonic acid. These conclusions are deduced from the experiments of Mr. Gough, and of MM. Sennebier, Huber, and Saussure, and would appear to be sufficiently established. Respecting the manner in which the change is effected, Mr. Ellis argues at some length to prove that there is no absorption of air by the seed, but that the carbon is emitted, and united to the oxygen surrounding it.

Chapter II. On the change induced on air by vegetation of plants. Water and heat are here, as in the former instance, absolutely essential; and light, although not necessary to the existence of the plant, seems to be requisite to the development of many of its properties. Air is also necessary to vegetation, and the leaves are the parts which act on it: but respecting the nature of the action much uncertainty still prevails.

vails. Dr. Priestley, who first turned the attention of philosophers to this inquiry, thought that vegetation increased the oxygenous portion of the atmosphere, or, as he termed it, improved the air: but his experiments were performed in the infancy of the pneumatic chemistry, and with his characteristic candor he fully acknowleged their imperfection. Other chemists appear to have obtained somewhat different results; and in some experiments performed by Mr. Ellis himself, the effect of vegetation seemed to be the production of carbonic acid, and the absorption of oxygen, in the same manner as in the germination of seeds. The subject, as left by Dr. Priestley, obviously required farther investigation: but we scarcely think that the experiments of Mr. Ellis are sufficiently accurate and numerous to obviate the difficulty. Taking it for granted, however, that the same kind of change is produced on the air by vegetation as by germination, he proceeds to inquire how it is effected; and he concludes that the same event happens here as in the former case, by the carbon being emitted, and united to oxygen exterior to the plant. With respect to the oxygenous gas that is given out by plants when immersed in water, the author thinks that it depends entirely on the nature of the water employed, or rather on the gas which it holds in solution; the plant, in this case, is supposed to act mechanically.

In the IIId chapter, on the respiration of the cold-blooded animals, the facts which are stated rest principally on the experiments of Vauquelin and Spallanzani. It is generally admitted that these animals induce nearly the same kind of change in the air with those of a more perfect organization, but that the degree of effect is much less considerable; oxygen is removed, and carbonic acid is substituted in its place. It appears that the azote is not affected, and the animals with cold blood differ from the others in being able to abstract more completely the oxygenous portion of the air in which they are confined.

The respiration of the human species, quadrupeds, and birds, forms the subject of the IVth chapter. Before he enters on a description of the chemical change induced on the air, Mr. Ellis considers the mechanical effects arising from the different states of the thorax, with respect to its capacity in the alternations of inspiration and expiration, and the quantity of air received and emitted in the ordinary action of the lungs. Few points in physiology have been subject to more various conclusions; the opinions of Dr. Goodwyn, Dr. Menzies, Mr. Davy, and Dr. Bostock, all pass under Mr. E.'s review, and appear to him to be more or less erroneous. The nature of the change induced on the air is, however, sufficiently well

ascertained; the volume is diminished, part of the oxygen is removed, and carbonic acid is substituted in its place. As to the manner in which this change is effected, we are still undecided; and the opinion of Mr. Ellis differs from that which is generally adopted. He argues, at some length, to prove that the air cannot be absorbed by the lungs; that the oxygenous part of it cannot be abstracted by the operation of a chemical affinity between it and the carbon of the blood; and that we have no proof of the emission of carbonic acid from this fluid. Our limits will not permit us to pursue the author through all his train of reasoning. He principally rests his objection on the physical structure of the lungs, which do not appear adapted to the absorption of air; nor indeed, if it were absorbed, would it be carried to the blood, but must follow the course of the absorbent vessels to the thoracic duct.—Mr.E.'s objections to the idea of an affinity subsisting between the oxygen and the blood do not appear to us to be very clearly stated; he remarks that the existence of air in the blood is not proved; and that we cannot explain how the oxygen can pass through the membrane of the lungs so as to arrive at this fluid.—With respect to these objections, it may be observed that it is not oxygenous gas, but oxygen, which is supposed to enter the blood; and we can as easily conceive the entrance of oxygen, as the emission of carbon, through the membrane of the lungs. Besides, it is proved by direct experiment that the intervention of a moistened blood, a much less pervious substance, does not prevent the action of the air on the blood. Mr. Ellis, however, imagines that the change induced on the air in respiration is entirely analogous to that which is effected by vegetation; that carbon is emitted, and united to oxygen contained in the lungs, so as to form carbonic acid; and that, consequently, no portion of the air, nor any of its elements, are received into the blood.

In the Vth chapter, Mr. Ellis inquires into the source of the carbon emitted in the processes that have been described. He thinks that it is, in every instance, discharged from the plant or animal in a state of aqueous solution; he considers the discharge, in all cases, as entirely excrementitious; and in animals, he supposes that it is not immediately derived from the venous blood, but that it is carried off by the exhalents of the lungs, together with the moisture that is emitted from them.—Chapter VI. is principally occupied with remarks on animal temperature.

In reviewing Mr. Ellis's work, we have chiefly endeavoured to point out those circumstances in which his ideas on physiology differ from those of his contemporaries. It would be impossible for us to enter into a regular critique on them, and our

space will only permit us to offer a general opinion of their merits. On the whole, then, we do not think that the author has proved his point, either with regard to the effect of vegetation on the air, or with reference to the manner in which the change produced by respiration is accomplished. At the same time, we are ready to acknowlege that the work deserves an attentive perusal, that it contains much valuable matter, and that it displays a candid and ingenuous turn of mind. **Bos.**

ART. III. *An Essay on the Nature of Fever*, being an Attempt to ascertain the Principles of its Treatment. By A. Philips Wilson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1807.

OUR readers are not unacquainted with the name of Dr. Wilson, as a respectable writer on the subject of fever: his former works have displayed information and judgment; and we took up the present volume with the expectation of meeting with the same qualities by which we had been gratified on former occasions. We must confess, however, that we have been disappointed; since we have here found little else than attempts to demolish hypotheses that were either altogether forgotten or rapidly mouldering into oblivion, and to establish in their room a train of speculations which, we apprehend, will not prove more durable. For some reason which we cannot clearly understand, the author selects the theories of Hoffmann, Boerhaave, Cullen, and Brown, as being the only modern hypotheses deserving of notice, and enters into a formal refutation of them. With respect to the first two, his attack is merely fighting shadows; and indeed it appears to us cruel to bring forwards the system of Cullen, which has so long ceased to influence the public mind, and which can only be deemed worthy of attention, as forming a part of the valuable body of facts that are contained in the writings of the venerable professor.

A critique on the hypothesis of Brown may be regarded as more excusable, both because some individuals still believe the doctrines or at least employ the language of that school, and because Dr. Wilson himself, in his days of inexperience, was attached to these opinions. He, however, now acknowleges his former errors; and he does this in so manly and candid a manner, as to give us a higher opinion of his good sense than we might have entertained if he had never fallen into them.

Before he enters on a discussion of the Brunonian theory of fever, Dr. Wilson makes some remarks on the system in general, which are judicious, and in some respects new.

He particularly controverts the opinion that the primary action of all substances is, in every instance, stimulating; and that the apparent sedation, which is sometimes produced, is merely the consequence of previous exhaustion. He clearly points out that the laws of excitability differ, as it exists in the muscular or nervous systems; and he advances some objections to the common idea of direct and indirect debility. We have afterward some observations on the usual division of the functions of the body into animal, vital, and natural; and we agree with the author that the division is not strictly correct, but that the vital and natural are so closely connected that it is difficult to draw the line between them. He proposes to arrange the whole under two classes, one consisting of the vital and natural functions, to both of which he would give the name of vital; and the other, of the animal. He lays down the following characteristics of them:

'The vital and natural functions are similar in their nature; have for their object the preservation of life; are performed independently of the will or consciousness of the animal; and immediately depend on organs which possess an excitability that continues unimpaired through life.

'The animal functions are not concerned in the preservation of life. They have for their object to connect the animal with the external world; are subjected all to the consciousness, many to the will, of the animal; immediately depend on organs of which the other functions are independent, and which possess an excitability subject to a constant alternation of exhaustion and renewal.'

This new classification, however, will probably not be without its difficulties;—some functions, to which the definition of both vital and animal action seems to apply, may in different circumstances be properly placed under either or both of these divisions.

The foundation on which the author erects his theory of fever is thus stated by himself:

'It appears, that when a debilitating cause is applied to the vital system, the extreme parts of this system lose their tone; that in consequence of this, secretion being impeded, a preternatural stimulus is applied to the heart and larger vessels, which, by exciting them, tends to restore tone to the capillaries, in the same way that an encreased action of the larger vessels of an inflamed part tends to restore tone to the capillaries of that part. On this principle, I believe, the whole phenomena of fever may be explained.'

In order to observe how far this principle is correct, we are led to an examination of the symptoms of fever; in which the principal object of the author is to shew that the succession of actions which take place is, first, a temporary debility,

succeeded by an increased excitement; and lastly a permanent debility. We own, however, that this does not appear to us to convey an idea of the phænomena which are essential to the state of fever; and much less can we agree in what appears to be the opinion of Dr. W. that these actions are necessarily linked together. How often do we observe fevers of the most acute and decided nature, in which, from the commencement, symptoms of complete debility take place, and remain through the whole course of the disease, unchanged in their character and progress? On the other hand, are we not every day in the habit of seeing fevers of the inflammatory type, which, from the first attack, exhibit marks of an increased action of the vessels, and an unusual sensibility of the nervous system? We conceive that these questions must be answered in the affirmative; and it is obvious that, if in one instance only we have a well marked case, in which either the previous debility or the succeeding excitement is absent, their succession cannot be considered as essential to the existence of fever; nor can they be regarded as necessarily connected.

Although we thus decidedly differ from Dr. Wilson in his hypothesis, and cannot but lament that he should have fallen into this unfortunate infatuation of theorizing, it is only justice to acknowlege that many good observations are contained in his account of the disease, and in his view of its treatment. We believe that it has been, for some time, an opinion of practical men, that wine and other powerful stimuli are less frequently necessary than they were supposed to be twenty years ago; and that in many instances the administration of them is even injurious: but we do not recollect ever to have seen the sentiment so fully expressed as in the work before us:

'When we see a patient labouring under symptoms of extreme debility, and find these symptoms almost uniformly relieved by a considerable quantity of wine, it is difficult, at first view, to persuade ourselves that the wine is pernicious; but an attentive observer will look beyond its immediate effects, and will then readily see sufficient reason to doubt the safety of this practice. He will find, that the temporary excitement he thus procured is succeeded by a greater degree of debility than that which the stimulus had removed, and if he perseveres in this plan, that in a large proportion of cases the pulse, upon the whole, will gradually become more frequent and feeble till it ceases altogether. These effects I have so often witnessed, that I cannot help thinking that almost any fever may be rendered fatal by a certain quantity of wine. And when we recollect that the excessive stimulus of wine is a frequent cause of fever, can we be surprised that the constant repetition of this stimulus should increase its symptoms?

'Besides the apparent good effects of wine for a short time after its exhibition, physicians have been led to an excessive use of it in typhus by another observation, the comparatively small effects it produces. That a pint of wine in typhus will not produce a greater effect than a glass in health, is adduced as an argument for the pint in the one case being as innocent as the glass in the other. But it is to be recollected, that wine in typhus only produces less excitement than in health, in proportion as the remaining excitability is less, and, consequently, that a degree of excitement which would occasion little or no inconvenience in health, may produce a fatal exhaustion in typhus. Here there is no excitability to spare, and the first principle of the treatment seems to be as much as possible to prevent its farther exhaustion. A very moderate and uniform exhibition of stimuli seems often necessary, that the action of the central parts of the sanguiferous system may not fall two low to support that of the circumference, but all excitement beyond this seems to have no other effect than that of exhausting the little vigour which yet remains.'

For a part of these remarks, which are contained in a note in the Appendix, Dr. Wilson refers to observations on the use of wine in Typhus by Dr. James Hamilton, in his work on Purgative Medicines.

Bos.

ART. IV. *The Satires of Juvenal:* translated and illustrated by Francis Hodgson, A. M., Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. 4to. pp. 572. Price, to Subscribers, 1l. 11s. 6d.; to Non-subscribers, 2l. Payne and Mackinlay. 1807.

THE common opinion of critics has decided that Juvenal has fallen into some of the most serious errors of style, both as to language and arrangement, which are usually charged on the declining ages of Roman literature: but his faults are redeemed by the noblest excellences; and no writer of antiquity has commanded more of the respect and admiration of powerful minds, in every age and country. If he may be censured alternately for harsh abruptness and turgid declamation;—if he often involves a plain assertion in an obscure periphrasis, and occasionally loses both himself and his meaning in a labyrinth of mythological allusion, while he suffers perhaps even more than other satirists by our ignorance of contemporary anecdote;—yet these defects in his manner are forgotten, when we contemplate the grand features of his mind. His masculine genius, his high-toned morality, his noble contempt for meanness, and his irresistible indignation against vice, place him in the first rank of writers formed for the improvement and correction of man. We are inclined to believe that the distinguishing traits of his character

character are peculiarly consonant to the habits of thinking which have long prevailed in England; an opinion which might be supported by observing that none of the antient poets has, to our knowlege, been so frequently rendered entire into our language; and certainly no foreign writer has ever been so highly honoured as Juvenal by two poetical translations of his complete works, executed almost at the same period, by such writers as Mr. Gifford and Mr. Hodgson. The successful attempt of the former has already received our thanks and our applause*. It is fit that the motive of Mr. Hodgson, (who always appears deeply sensible of the merits of his predecessor,) for offering a new translation to the public, should be explained in his own words:

'Mr. Gifford, in a part of his very entertaining essay on the Roman satirists, observes that there is a slovenliness in some of Juvenal's verses, for which he has been justly blamed, as it would have cost him so little pains to improve them. But, generally speaking, (as Mr. Gifford, by the slight exception he has made, I suppose allows) the poetry of Juvenal has a remarkably equable and harmonious flow. To my ears, I confess, there is hardly among the Latin poets one, whose versification sounds more musically, or seems to have run with less labour from the author. Surely then such a writer should appear in English with as few discontinued and broken lines as possible. Indeed, however allowable these interruptions may be in Latin hexameters, in English rhymes they certainly are not, when the disjointed verse recurs frequently.—

'I think then that Mr. Gifford, by his predominant desire of giving as much as he could of the original, in as small a compass of poetical translation as possible; by his fear of giving a wider diffusion to the sense; has admitted too many of these broken lines: and it seems as if he had been convinced of this himself; for his second edition is greatly improved in smoothness and evenness of versification.

'The attentive reader will find that I have not omitted much of Juvenal in my translation. I have, assuredly, retained more than Dryden; though perhaps less (and yet I do not know this) than Mr. Gifford.

'The extent, then, of my ambition, and it is no moderate one, has been this; not to reach the height of Dryden, where Dryden has chosen to leave all below him; yet, upon the whole, to give a more faithful version of Juvenal than he and his associates have given; and, at the same time, to do it in such a manner as to offend an English ear with fewer instances of interrupted versification than those which (originally at least) occurred in the pages of Mr. Gifford.'

Having objected to Mr. Gifford, in our review of his work, the extreme diffusion in which he appeared to us to

* See M. Rev. vol. xl. N. S. p. 1.

have indulged, we find ourselves, at the very outset of our examination, still more directly at issue with the present translator. It is true that we considered the former as liable to censure on another account, and freely stated that his expressions were too often low and uncouth, his versification broken and unmusical. These faults ought never to be found in the same work, since the licence of expansion excludes the plea of necessity for falling into inelegant or inharmonious language. For our own part, indeed, we are by no means convinced that freedom and fidelity are incompatible, nor that it is necessary to sacrifice the graces even of poetical composition to the correctness of representation. We have lately been called to defend such principles of prose-translation as we conceive to be in danger of becoming obsolete, in our review of Dr. Steuart's Sallust: (see our last Number:) but we are saved the trouble of applying them to poetical works, by finding them stated in a note to Mr. Hodgson's preface, with all the limitations and restrictions which, in our opinion, the difficulty of the task requires:

'The English language compels diffuseness; a literal version is impossible; the Latin verse is nearly a fifth longer than our own; and the very nature of rhyme, forbidding one line to run into another, often obliges us to stretch phrases (for to contract them is seldom possible) very capriciously, for the benefit of the couplet. Then come the great curses of Gothicism, crowds of auxiliary verbs—and the "the's, my's, thy's, em's, us's—" which make our barbarous jargons, with their inharmonious monosyllables, bear the same resemblance to the ancient languages, that a modern-built church, dotted with windows, bears to the graceful and commanding simplicity of a Grecian temple consisting of pillars. "Expansion, for these reasons," (continues the friend, who suggested much of this note to my consideration) "is, I think, almost always necessary; but we must not take calomel in a looseness. The more moderately and sparingly we use our privilege of dilating, the better probably and the stronger in expression will the poem be; at all events, the translation of Juvenal will be more complete. Ad summam—the difference between us is, I conceive, this; you seem satisfied with attempting to clothe the spirit of the author in an English body; I think body and spirit should be the same, and nothing altered but the dress; that an exact resemblance in all points should be the first object; and that the *effect will generally be copied with the words;* but if not, that nothing but the most unbending stubbornness of idiom, or obscurity of allusion, should drive you to a change."

Many legitimate reasons are given, to shew that a poem translated from the Latin must necessarily occupy a much larger space than the original. 'The average of syllables in

in Latin hexameters is perhaps about fifteen *; as many as three dactyles usually occurring in a verse. So that a person, who attempted to translate Latin hexameters line for line into English heroic poetry, would have five extra sylables to cram into every verse; which particular difficulty would be no slight one, not to mention the general conciseness of the Latin language (from the inflections of its nouns and verbs, and various other causes) compared with the "wild plenty" of the English.'

We are willing to allow that these arguments prove the impossibility of making a translation keep pace exactly with an original, and the absurdity of attempting to render a classical work "line for line": but in our judgment, whatever evinces that a perfect fidelity cannot be preserved should make the translator doubly cautious of wanton amplification. Fidelity and closeness (where they are not inconsistent with the purity of idiomatic English) are surely in the highest degree desirable, though perhaps never completely to be attained: but the sort of observation which we combat is that, because we cannot accomplish all, we should attempt nothing; and that an occasional necessity for departing from reasonable rules should introduce and authorise an universal licentiousness. We are aware that the indolence of translators has given popularity to negligence; and their notions generally resolve themselves into this well known common-place that an antient author, instead of having his style correctly imitated, must be made to express himself "as he would have done if he had composed his work originally in English;" a maxim very capable, at first sight, of captivating the ear, but which the slightest examination will discover to be void of any determinate meaning.

Perhaps we have dwelt too long on our own ideas of the arduous duties of a translator; which may, after all, exact a degree of precision that will be fatal, in many instances, to the more valuable qualities of freedom and animation. Mr. Hodgson fairly professes to have made his election between difficulties that we supposed to be irreconcileable; and he declares that, instead of laboring to preserve 'the sudden turns, the strong points, and striking contrasts of Juvenal,' he has leant 'to another peculiarity of his character, that sweeping grandeur of declamation, that exalted style of poetical oratory, which are the chief properties of this sonorous writer.' Thus warned of the system on which the translator has proceeded, we now hasten to lay before our readers some specimens of the success of his execution.

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* Dryden rates the number at less, Johnson as above.

The

The translation is preceded by a Prologue, containing a rapid sketch of the progress of Satire among the antients. This common subject is here treated with a degree of spirit, originality, and address, which inspired us with no mean opinion of Mr. H.'s poetical powers. The characters of Lucilius, Horace, and Juvenal, are more strongly marked, and the two latter more boldly distinguished, than we remember to have seen them in any other writer:

'The great Auruncan chose a higher flight,
And genuine Satire shed a sudden light;
With surer bolts she struck the guilty soul,
And shudd'ring villains own'd her new controul.
'So erst in Greece, that old dramatic choir
Stamp'd the bad brow with Satire's honest fire—
Lucilius brought their bold example home,
And smote with rival warmth the knaves of Rome;
Took from the Greeks their noble plan alone,
Their measure chang'd, and made the praise his own.
Skreen'd in the shade of Scipio's awful name,
Lucilius shot his darts with ventrous aim;
Like Teucer safe behind the sev'n-fold shield,
He chas'd each hostile Mutius from the field.
'The courteous Horace next was heard to sing,
A contrast wide as wintry storms and spring!
There Nature's rage, irregular and wild,
Here the soft air of Art's accomplish'd child,
Too roughly that the stubborn truth convey'd,
Too gently this with tickled folly play'd;
Scarce prais'd the right, and scarce expos'd the wrong,
Skimm'd o'er life's surface in his easy song;
And taught the struggling soul that captive gait,
That vain urbanity which wins the Great.'—
'But lo! the rapid torrent rushes down
On the pale monsters of the startled town;
Rapid, yet clear, though smoothly flowing, strong,
The liquid force of that Aquinian song!
Back to his school let moral Persius fly,
And vainly preach the Stoic's apathy;
The world's great master trembles on his throne
At lofty Juvenal's undaunted tone.
No dogmas of the porch his bosom guide,
No grave Cornutus lectures at his side;
But, as from truth's celestial fount he drinks,
His virtue utters what his wisdom thinks.
'Now, undisguis'd, each savage Tyrant stood,
And Rome was delug'd in her children's blood;
The poet's courage with the danger grew,
And fiercely at the eagle's nest he flew;
With daring soul tyrannic pów'r defied,
Spoke the plain truth, and spoke it, though he died.

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His noble rage despis'd all humbler game,
And branded Vice, however high her name;
To slavish use no weak respect he paid,
But still rever'd the Senate's empty shade;
Call'd back the glories of the past in vain,
And breath'd his strong, republican disdain.'

The first Satire of Juvenal is valuable for the force and spirit with which whole catalogues of follies and corruptions are brought together in the gross, as motives for venting his indignant verse against his countrymen. We quote the first passage on this subject,—the same of which we presented Mr. Gifford's translation to our readers:

'Yet while o'er Satire's dang'rous path I run,
And trace the chariot of Aurunca's son,
Attend, unprejudic'd—AND ASK YE THIS,
When the soft eunuch courts the wedded kiss!
When Mævia naked to the waist appears,
And at the boar directs her deadly spears;
When all our lords to him in riches yield,
Who reap'd my manly chin's resounding field;
When proud Crispinus o'er his back displays
Tyre's radiant purple to the public gaze;
The refuse once of his Egyptian home,
Canopus' scandal—now the boast of Rome!
Wearing a lighter ring in Summer's *heat*,
And fanning his fair hand beneath the *weight*—
Who can refrain from Satire's bursting rage,
Nor lash the crimes of this corrupted age?'

We must not withhold the poet's annunciation of the general objects of his muse:

'From that old time, when 'mid the gen'ral flood
Deucalion safely on the mountain stood,
There moor'd his little bark, and, bending, pray'd
(Nor vain his pray'r) for Heav'n's continued aid;
When, wond'rous sight! the soft'ning stones began
To breathe, and move, and kindle into man;
From days when naked innocence was known,
Down to the tainted manners of our own;
The mad varieties of busy life,
Pleasure's smooth course, and passion's giddy strife,
Cares, hopes, and fears, of every following age,
Fill the wide circuit of my motley page.
'And when did vice so flourishing before
Spread with her pois'nous weeds the nation o'er?
First, when did av'rice with so wide a sail
Catch the full favour of the public gale?
When sate such spirit on the gambler's brow?
When rose the main to such a stake as now?
See, as around the fatal board they stand,
And shake the dice-box with determin'd hand,

How

How deep, how dreadful is the contest there,
What bursts of joy! what looks of blank despair!
As the pale steward opes the waning chest,
Thousands are gone—but madness risques the rest,
Nor leaves enough for one poor cloak behind,
To guard a shiv'ring menial from the wind.'

From the second Satire, we can only transcribe the gloomy prospect of another world; having first premised that we do not adopt Mr. Hodgson's interpretation of the disputed phrase "*talis* umbra," which to us appears clearly applicable to those who are guilty of the offences previously exposed, and not to unbelievers in the pagan system:

' Realms of eternal night beyond the grave,
The gloomy boatman on the Stygian wave;
The shadowy thousands that he ferries o'er
To tort'ring dæmons from that dreary shore—
Those mournful realms to modern sceptics seem
The visionary terrors of a dream:
By none believ'd, so impious are the times,
But boys untutor'd in their father's crimes;
Yet from the bath's abhorr'd contagion free,
And blest with youth's untainted purity.
But doubt not thou.—When, 'mid the mighty dead,
Who nobly triumph'd, or as nobly bled;
Great Scipio's soul, Camillus' awful ghost,
And Cremera's, and Cannæ's slaughter'd host;
When, from this earth, an unbelieving sprite
Descends to them—they shudder at the sight;
Bid through the shades the lustral torches glow,
And all around the cleansing waters throw—
But vain the holy rite, the pious pray'r, below.
' There shall we all, from this too pleasing sky,
Believe or not, be hurried when we die;
There shall our soaring eagle sink at last,
Though his proud wing Juverna's shore has past;
And Britain, where the short solstitial night
Scarce intercepts the day's continued light;*
Though to new conquest onward still he flies,
And at the pole is seen with trembling eyes.'

The third Satire abounds with forcible passages: but it is so well known to the English reader by means of Dr. Johnson's imitation, and naturally appears with so much more advantage as a paraphrase than it can derive from a literal translation, that no extracts could possess the charm of novelty, and all comparison would be unjust. For this reason, and from the impossibility of offering specimens of each particular Satire,

* The meaning in these two lines appears incomplete.

we

we shall abstain from selecting any part either of the third or the tenth. It is in the fourth that Juvenal first condescends to playfulness and humour; and indeed the subject precluded his usual gravity of style, while it provoked all the severity of his sarcasm. The gigantic turbot, which was caught in the Adriatic, of too vast a size for any but the imperial table, is traced by active *delatores* from the coast to the shambles, and produces a curious illustration of the principle of *mare clausum*, and the sovereignty of the seas:

" Restore the fish!· from Cæsar's ponds it came;
Restore the fish, and honour Cæsar's claim.
Hear how the lawyers of the crown declare
That all the sea contains of rich and fair
Is the revenue of the king alone—
Then hope not such a treasure for thine own."
" Oh let it go," in haste the fisher cries,
" For autumn clouds the pestilential skies;
Autumn's last breath attaints the blasted year,
And sick'ning crowds the fatal ague fear."

The unresisting fisherman conveys his prodigy to Alba, where the Roman Senate,—in better times the disposer of provinces, and the arbiter of the world,—is convened to decide the fate of a fish:

' Unhappy Senate! in whose pallid face
Sits the sad curse of pension and of place;
Suspected favour, and dissembled hate,
And all the injurious friendship of the great.'

The sitting passes off, as might be expected, with a full acknowlegement of the Emperor's right, and the most flattering congratulations on this auspicious event. The several members of that august body are brought on the stage in a very striking manner; and the portrait of Crispus, a worthy man, though a pliant courtier in the worst of times, who was led imperceptibly to sacrifice his rectitude to habitual ease, abounds with instruction:

' Look where in sight old Crispus next appears,
Old, but good-humour'd in the vale of years;
Whose gentle life, that never gave offence,
Was pictur'd in his pleasant eloquence.
Where for the Man, who spreads his ample reign
O'er earth and sea, and all that they contain,
So useful a companion could we find
As modest Crispus, with his virtuous mind?
If with a voice unbiass'd, bold, and free,
He might have check'd the strides of cruelty:
Beheld the scourge of Rome, unaw'd by fear,
And brav'd the fierceness of a tyrant's ear;

Hurt

Hurt at the threaten'd hail, the heat or cold,
And black with anger at a storm foretold.
'But Crispus ne'er indulg'd so vain a dream,
Nor ever swam against th' impetuous stream;
He ne'er with patriot fires had warm'd his youth,
Nor stak'd existence on a fatal truth.
So, many a winter, many a summer ran
Calm and unclouded o'er the pliant man;
E'en in that court, amid despotic rage,
In flatt'ry's armour safe to latest age.'

At the moment in which we are beginning to wonder that the poet should have indulged so long in calm irony and plain details of character, his native genius bursts out in an unrivalled strain of mingled contempt and indignation:

'And oh! that ever in such idle sport
Had liv'd the lord of that obsequious court;
Nor, worse employ'd in savage scenes of blood,
Had robb'd the city of the brave and good—
While highborn cowards saw their brothers' doom,
And vengeance slumber'd o'er the Lamian tomb.
But when he dar'd assail a vulgar head,
Uprose the people, and the tyrant bled.'

These last lines immediately lead us on to the merited attack on the degraded nobility of Rome contained in the eighth Satire; which is translated by a friend* of the author in a style that, without any marks of studied imitation, bears a strong resemblance to the energetic simplicity of Dryden. The maxims and familiar observations are rendered with much felicity. Thus

"*Rarus enim fermé sensus communis in illâ*
Fortunâ,—"

'For plain good sense, first blessing of the sky,
Is rarely met with in a state so high.'

"*Miserum est aliorum incumbere famæ,*
Ne collapsa neant subductis tecta columnis,—"

''Tis weak to rest on others your renown;
Shake but the pillar, the whole pile falls down.'

We need not transcribe at length the noble lines beginning *Esto bonus miles, tutor bonus*, &c. (v. 79.) which are perfectly known to every scholar, in order to make the merit of the following translation understood:

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* J. H. Merivale, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn.

'Be

'Be thou, thyself, in war thy country's sword,
In peace the upright judge and gen'rous lord;
If ever summon'd by the sacred laws
A witness in some dark, uncertain cause,
Though Phalaris himself command the lie,
And present torments prompt the perjury,
Count it an evil, worse than flames or death,
To barter honour for this short liv'd breath;
Or, for the sake of fickle life, to give
That, which alone should make thee wish to live.
Worthy his fate, the perjur'd wretch will die,
How great soe'er his wealth and luxury;
Though he lie plung'd in essenc'd baths, and eat
A hundred Lucrine oysters at a treat.'

The few lines, in which Nero is contrasted with Orestes, both stained with the blood of a mother, are very spirited:

'Like the mad Greek, his mother's blood he spilt,
The act the same—but oh how wide the guilt!
One rose th' avenger of his father's dust,
Slain at the feast, a sacrifice to lust;
The gods inspir'd him, and the deed was just.
He never touch'd Electra's sacred head;
He never stain'd with blood his Spartan bed,
Nor drugg'd the bowl with fratricidal rage—
He never sang upon an Argive stage,
Nor wrote dull Troics.'

The bathos immediately subjoined, 'Nor wrote dull Troics,' is to be charged on Juvenal, not on his translator.

Mr. Hodgson justly observes that the ninth Satire possesses only one passage that is qualified for giving pleasure to the reader:

'Oh! how shall I recall the moments gone,
Blasted in hope, and utterly undone!
Swift down the pathway of declining years,
As on we journey through this vale of tears,
Youth wastes away, and withers like a flow'r,
The lovely phantom of a fleeting hour.
Mid the light sallies of the mantling soul,
The smiles of beauty, and the social bowl,
Inaudible, the foot of chilly age
Steals on our joys, and drives us from the stage.' *

* Mr. Gifford's version is closer to the original, *obrepit non intellecta senectus*:

"The noiseless foot of Time steals swiftly by,
And ere we dream of manhood, age is nigh." *Rev.*

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In

In Satire eleven, which is an invitation to a friend, the surly Roman lays aside his sternness, and appears in the amiable character of an open-hearted host; though it was not to be expected that he should lose so favorable an opportunity of contrasting the purity of antient manners with those of his own times:

> 'Such was the board our ancient senate spread,
> These were the banquets of the virtuous dead;
> So curious gather'd with industrious hand,
> The herbs that flourish'd in his plot of land;
> Trimm'd his small fire, and cook'd the plain repast
> That modern slaves would sneer at, and would fast:
> Slaves, chain'd to work, and banish'd far from home,
> But still rememb'ring the delights of Rome;
> Rememb'ring still the *tripes* * on which they fed,
> And their low revels at the Cæsar's head †.'

The interesting poem which follows, describing the escape of a beloved friend from shipwreck, and the festivities with which Juvenal honoured the event, would not have deserved the title of a Satire, if it did not undergo a violent distortion, towards the close, to the subject of legacy-hunting. This is perhaps the most prominent instance of that sudden change of thought and manner, which so often exposes Juvenal's taste to censure. The former and more pleasing part of this composition is here very successfully translated.

It may be considered as surprising that the thirteenth Satire has not been more frequently attempted by our poets; the subject being in its nature general and unconfined, the morality (with some trifling and not obvious exceptions) perfectly consistent with our own, and the style of thinking throughout peculiarly just and powerful. Mr. Hodgson has here also availed himself of the assistance of a friend ‡, who appears qualified to give a faithful representation of all that is striking and solemn in the original. Having already approached the limits for quotation, and deeming it necessary to lay before our readers one or two extracts more, we can here select only a single passage, descriptive of the *animus torter* which persecutes the guilty through all the scenes of ordinary life:

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* Gifford renders *vulva* by *savory teats*; the paps of a sow with pig, and a part of the belly, properly seasoned, being a favourite dish with the Romans. *Rev.*

† The latter part of this passage is here greatly expanded. *Rev.*

‡ Mr. B. Drury, of Eton.

'These

'These are the souls who shrink with pale affright,
When harmless lightnings purge the sultry night;
Who faint, when hollow rumblings from afar
Foretel the wrath of elemental war;
Nor deem it chance nor wind that caus'd the din,
But Jove himself in arms to punish sin.
That bolt was innocent—that storm is pass'd—
More loud, more fatal, each succeeding blast—
Deceitful calms but nurse combustion dire,
And tranquil skies are fraught with embryo fire.'

The most important, practical, and truly moral, of all these poems, (except the xth,) is the fourteenth, in which parents are cautioned against corrupting their children by pernicious example. If the coarseness of Juvenal's language, and his frequent recurrence to revolting images, in other places, have thrown some doubt on the sincerity of his wishes to reform by chastising, this excellent satire is sufficient for his vindication. What but the most zealous love of virtue could have produced this impressive warning?

'Let nothing lewd be said, no vice appear
Within this threshold, for a boy is here.
The greatest rev'rence to a boy is due—
Shrink, guilty father, from his conscious view,
Scorn not his tender years, but, shudd'ring, fly
The black pollution, for your child is nigh.
Oh! if hereafter that unlucky child
Offend the censor with his courses wild,
(And he'll be like thee not in face alone,
But in his morals too thy very son,)
If from the thorns of Virtue's rugged way,
As thou didst once, the stripling runs astray,
Thou'lt chide, forsooth, his prodigal career,
And leave a shilling to thy graceless heir!
How canst thou dare a father's freedom use,
And with loud rage his wanton prime abuse,
While on thy years still fouler blots are seen,
And the dry wood's more rotten than the green.'

What can exceed the picture of the good old principles of the early common-wealth?

'In that rude time, the soldier worn with age,
And Punic spears, and Pyrrhus' hostile rage,
Receiv'd at last, for all his bloody toil,
Scarce two poor acres of the parent soil.
Nor unrewarded did he think his scars,
Or Rome forgetful of her hero's wars;
But dwelt contented in the narrow spot,
With the dear tenants of his straw-roof'd cot;

His pregnant wife within, and playful round,
Four smiling infants on the verdant ground,
Three little masters, and their slave beside,
All blest alike, and undisturb'd by pride;
While for their brothers, lab'ring in the farm,
Plac'd on the fire was seen the pottage warm,
A larger mess than their's, when ev'ning's shade
Call'd the stout rustics from the woodland glade;
Whose poor allotment would but ill afford
One kitchen garden to a modern lord.'

Juvenal's propheey, that an ill-instructed son will plunge far deeper in vice than even the worst of parents could design or wish, is illustrated by a reference to the love of money, with wonderful sagacity and knowlege of human nature. This is, in effect, the awful moral of the Satire:

'Wealth, that you sought o'er many a land and sea,
He gains at once by desp'rate villainy.
"Wretch that he is!" astonish'd will you cry,
"Were these my doctrines? did I teach him, I?"
You were the source and origin of ill—
For, to inspire an avaricious will,
With base advice to poison youthful hearts,
And teach them sordid, money-getting, arts,
Is to release the horses from the rein,
And let them whirl the chariot o'er the plain;
Forward they gallop from the less'ning goal,
Deaf to the voice of impotent controul.'

The numerous extracts, which we have made, will naturally lead to the inference that our sentiments are decidedly favourable to this translation: but we trust that the materials here collected will be found sufficient to enable our readers to form their own judgment on its merits, which we have rather refrained from anticipating by our observations. It is but justice to add, that our specimens have not been selected on account of any imagined superiority in those parts of the work, but because the merit of the original passages attracted our particular notice to them. The whole, indeed, is executed with such remarkable uniformity, that, even had we taken extracts at random, they would probably have been equal to the above; and the faults, in our estimation, are solely to be attributed to the too liberal principles of translation adopted in the present instance, of which our readers are already apprized. This cause, with an anxiety to preserve the smoothness of versification, by expressing every object in couplets or perfect lines, has sometimes produced feebleness and an unnecessary mul-

tiplication of epithets, and sometimes additions inconsistent with the original. Thus, in the opening of the fifth Satire:

> 'If thou canst bear in base dependance still
> To live the creature of another's will,
> *Canst sponge and wheedle for the gratis feast,*
> Still laugh'd at, still despised, *but still a guest,*' &c.

the second couplet is an interpolation, which alters the character of the person addressed. Trebius is not a parasite, who has the talent of procuring invitations to the tables of the great by cringing and flattery: but he is a miserable client, who has a certain family claim on the hospitality of a single patron, yet is scarcely ever invited, and is condemned, at each visit, to encounter all the varieties of insult and degradation.—In the 6th Satire, the habit of amplification has betrayed Mr. Hodgson into an exaggerated caricature, where the original picture was sufficiently strong. We allude to his version of the lines,

> "*Sed potanda ferens infantibus ubera magnis,*
> *Et sæpe horridior glandem ructante marito.*"

We ought not, however, to dismiss this Satire without observing generally (for no particular extracts will be expected,) that he has extricated himself from the difficulties of his task with much spirit and dexterity.

Again, towards the close of the tenth Satire, where Juvenal points out the uncertain quality of the things for which we pray, and contrasts our blind wishes with the divine prescience, he observes:

> —— "NOS *animorum*
> *Impulsu, & cæcâ magnâque cupidine ducti,*
> *Conjugium petimus, partumque uxoris: at* ILLIS
> *Notum,* qui *pueri,* qualisque *futura sit uxor.*"

The translator, not satisfied with warning us how *uncertain* are the consequences of this important connection, states them as probably disastrous:

> 'By a blind impulse violently driven,
> We claim a wife and family from Heaven,
> But Heaven best knows how *vile* our wife may be,
> How *shameless* our *ungrateful* family.' (p. 205.)

In the concluding lines of this Satire, Mr. Hodgson has not been so successful as Mr. Gifford, whose translation of the famous apostrophe to Fortune (extracted in our review of his work) appears to us the *ne plus ultra* in this department of literature. We cannot agree, however, with either of these gentlemen in thinking that any impiety or incorrectness is to

be imputed to the "*monstro quod ipse tibi possis dare*," as long as mankind are considered to be free moral agents.

We might perhaps accumulate instances in which a regard for the polish of numbers and for the flow of diction has produced some injustice to the sense of the Roman poet: but they would all class themselves under the general observation with which we began, and are besides never injurious to that general effect which Mr. Hodgson has successfully laboured to produce.

So large a portion of this volume is occupied by the notes, that we can scarcely decline a distinct examination of them; yet one circumstance appears to render it unnecessary for us to dwell on them at any length:—they have but little relation to Juvenal, and contain few explanations of his obscure passages, few critical comments, and no various readings. In fact, they all bear the marks of having been composed under the influence of spleen and disgust, very naturally excited against the various abuses of the duties of an editor, by which the present author has peculiarly suffered in the hands of his German commentators: but, though painful experience has taught us to participate in these sentiments, we really think that they have been allowed to operate too extensively in the case before us. In avoiding one extreme, Mr. Hodgson is in great danger of falling into another, which is even more mischievous; it is easy for any person to pass over superfluous annotations, but the general reader, who does not find the explanation of which he stands in need, can proceed no farther in the book; and nobody will deny that the Satires here translated demand frequent and copious illustration, before they can be properly understood and relished. We perfectly acquiesce in the propriety of placing the notes by themselves, at the end of the work: 'a poem should be read quite through, before it is examined in detail;' and if we may continue ignorant for a time of the whole meaning of particular passages, in consequence of the adoption of this method, it may be far better than putting the general effect to hazard by perpetual reference to notes at the bottom of every page. Yet we may venture to assure Mr. H. that few of his readers will be satisfied with a single perusal; and that they will be too much interested by his representation of Juvenal, not to wish for a complete acquaintance with him.

It will always be our pride to defend the cause of learning against the attacks of book-makers, and to stand among the foremost champions (as Mr. H. expresses it) of TEXT against COMMENT: but, on this subject, let us be clearly understood. The plodding investigator of the minutest facts described, to

which allusion is made, and the explorer of all the hidden recesses of political or religious customs, may perhaps be neither a poet nor a philosopher: but if those facts or customs, however unimportant in themselves, elucidate the writings of classical authors, we think that his occupation is useful and praiseworthy. He will have enabled the admirers of a noble work to enter into all its beauties; and he may often, by ascertaining particular points, throw an unexpected light collaterally on matters of the highest consequence. Every scholar's recollection will readily supply him with instances of the advantage derived to history from accidental passages in poetry; and it is indeed impossible to assign any limits to the discoveries, which may be elicited in this manner. Up to this point, therefore, the commentator has rendered a valuable service to literature; and as far as his comparisons of the various readings in MSS. assist his researches for the purposes above described, they also may deserve encouragement: but, when these limits are transgressed,—when the editor takes advantage of a well known name to obtrude on the public his own common-place remarks, his own dogmatical censure and capricious praise, and perhaps too his personal altercations with rival commentators, accompanied by all the bitterness which is ever attached to squabbles on trival subjects,—he then deserves a degree of indignation proportioned to the magnitude of the trust which he breaks, and to the value of the text which is swallowed up in his irrelevant *excursus*.

With us it is certainly a matter of regret that all the more obvious difficulties which occur in Juvenal have not been illustrated in the present version; especially because those explanations which are inserted are in general neat and satisfactory*. We must not, however, forget to inform our readers that the notes contain a valuable selection of translated classical poetry. The minor Latin poems, with which we are presented in very spirited English verse, are numerous, and often naturally introduced. Many of the epigrams of Martial are properly connected with the Satires of his friend; and we are little inclined to complain of the beautiful extracts from Statius, Claudian, and others, though we recognize no

* In noticing the preceding efforts which have been made to illustrate the difficult passage in Sat I. *Pone Tigellinum*, &c. Mr. H. speaks of 'the volley of nonsense which commentators have successively let fly at this unhappy passage:' but his own explanation is not in our view so fortunate as that which Mr. Gifford has given; since it is not easy to conceive how, as he suggests, the hunting of the christians by dogs could make furrows.

Mo. y.

manifest necessity for printing them here, and though they might perhaps have been as well collected in a separate work. With a few additions, they would form an interesting volume,—an object which we recommend to Mr. Hodgson's attention.

An important feature in these notes still remains to be observed; and it would be vain to dissemble our surprise at many of the criticisms on antient and modern authors which they contain. The opinions, however, from which we dissent, are much too numerous to be confuted or even examined in this place, and we must be satisfied with entering a general protest against them. We are more willing to contemplate Mr. Hodgson as a poet than as a critic; and we are confident that all, who are capable of feeling his powers in the former character, will readily forgive his omissions and overlook his defects in the latter.

Den.

ART. X. *Struggles through Life*, exemplified in the various Travels and Adventures in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, of Lieutenant John Harriott, formerly of Rochford in Essex; now Resident Magistrate of the Thames Police. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 722. 14s. Boards. Hatchard, &c. 1807.

MR. John Harriot was the son of respectable though not of wealthy parents, and began his career of life at the age of thirteen as a midshipman on board a ship of war; in which, after having been sent to several parts of America, he cruised a long time in the Mediterranean, and visited Gibraltar, St. Jean d'Acre, Corsica, and Lisbon. On his return to England, while steering under easy sail for Plymouth, the ship was wrecked off the Mewstone, and her crew was with difficulty preserved from immediate death.

This unpromising commencement only fixed him in the resolution of continuing in the naval service, which he preferred to a very advantageous offer of settling in trade. He went out a second time in a frigate, was present at the siege, but not at the capture, of the Havannah, and was active at the re-taking of Newfoundland from the French. When peace was concluded, he entered into the mercantile service, sailed up the Baltic, and again to the West Indies and America: but, conceiving some disgust, and impelled by an unconquerable spirit of enterprise, adventure, and inquiry, he formed the bold project of residing with a tribe of North American savages; and he actually remained four months with the Oneidas and Tuscaroras, studying their manners, and sharing their toils and dangers. His next station was in the military

military service of the East India Company; he arrived at Madras just at the close of the war with Hyder Ally, and was useful in introducing the Prussian practice and discipline, which had been lately established in England. He acted also as judge advocate to a considerable district, as chaplain to the army, and as parish priest to the neighbourhood, in the absence of regular professional men. A severe wound in one of his legs compelled him reluctantly to relinquish these occupations, and to quit the service; but, declining all offers of settling in a civil capacity at Madras, the Cape, or St. Helena, as well as an invitation from some oriental savages to make a trial of their way of life, he returned to his native country, married, and was so unfortunate as to lose his wife and child within a year.

After having tried various occupations, and married a second time, Mr. H. devoted himself entirely to farming, and purchased for 40l. an island comprising between two and three hundred acres, but generally covered by the sea, from which he thought that it might be rescued by embankments. His hopes were realized; his expences were repaid; the Society of Arts honoured him with their medal; his returns became considerable, and promised a handsome competence: but alas! he 'was destined to see the little all of his hard-earned property swallowed up by the ocean.' This calamity, in conjunction with a fire which destroyed his house but a few months before, reduced him to absolute ruin.

The kindness of friends, and the sympathy of neighbours, supported and consoled a mind not easily depressed; and the liberality of Mr. H.'s creditors enabled him to try his fate as a settler in North America, whither his third wife and family accompanied him. After having encountered perpetual disappointment in a tour through many of the States, and a tedious journey to the back-lands for the purpose of discovering a favourable spot, he purchased a small farm in Rhode Island; which, however, he was soon compelled to relinquish by the violent irritation against England and Englishmen which at that time (1795) pervaded the United States. Yet he no sooner returned to England, than he entered into a new speculation for making large purchases in Georgia, (for the ultimate use of our government, as we collect from the narrative,) which was defeated by a breach of promise in respect to the advance of money by his associate in the concern. Notwithstanding this disappointment also, he became master of a farm in Long Island: but the want of society, the evil influence of a vicious neighbourhood on his sons, the difficulty of obtaining assistance, and the improbability of ever realizing so large

a property as he had expected, induced him to 'cross the atlantic for the fourteenth time.' Without detailing the various objects which passed through his mind as offering a provision for himself and a large family, we state with pleasure that he now enjoys a most respectable situation in the very useful Police office, which owes its institution in a great measure to his suggestions; and that he has had the satisfaction of seeing his two eldest sons obtain a good provision in the East India Service.

We have purposely given this dry enumeration of the leading events in the life of Mr. Harriott, in order to prove to our readers what vast opportunities he has possessed for collecting the most useful, important, and diversified information. When we add that he has not wholly neglected these opportunities; that to an acute and vigilant understanding he unites a restless activity, an undaunted perseverance, great quickness of feeling, and a peculiar readiness to learn; that his minor adventures, his early loves, friendships, and quarrels, are interesting and attractive, while the anecdotes are lively, sensible, and amusing; and that his style, though far from polished, and not always chaste and correct, is nervous and spirited, with many instances of that felicity of expression which can be attained by none but original thinkers;—our readers will not be surprised at our declaring that his work has revived in our mind sensations which have slept almost ever since the happy days in which Robinson Crusoe had the charm of novelty.—Let it not be supposed, from this reference to that popular romance, that we mean to insinuate the least suspicion of Mr. Harriott's veracity: on the contrary, we see no reason for doubting the truth of any of the facts related in these volumes. The incidents of such a life must necessarily be peculiar and extraordinary: but we meet with no inconsistent or incredible stories; while we discover throughout the narrative an air of probability, to which indeed we perhaps might not pay much respect after the successful deceptions practised by De Foe, if the author's manner did not at the same time convince us that his rectitude of principle and moral pride are wholly incompatible with the deliberate fabrication of falsehoods. We were sorry, therefore, to see him give a kind of handle to unfounded incredulity by some expressions used in his Introduction, in which he repeats the same story of the flying fish and the chariot wheel, which we extracted at p. 304 of our last volume, in our review of the *Oriental Field Sports*, as an useful hint to readers of foreign travels. It is singular enough that two unconnected authors, who have given the same warning to their sceptical readers, should accidentally confirm

confirm each other's veracity; for the present writer's account of hunting in India corroborates some of the most peculiar descriptions of it that are furnished by Captain Williamson.

We hope also that, in any future edition of this work, dates will be inserted, and the division of time more accurately marked; and we think that it will be more satisfactory to write the names of places and persons at full length, except where the feelings of individuals may be wounded or private confidence violated.

Having said so much on the general merits of this production, we have the less room for extracts from it; and the choice of quotations is perplexing, since we find in it few chapters from which we could not select something that would be entertaining to the generality of readers. The author's tour in America abounds with useful practical information; he does not disdain to enter into the minutest particulars that may be serviceable to the settler; and his clear accounts, while they may deter many from a hazardous undertaking, will point out to others the most probable means of pursuing it with success. The unfortunate state of our present relations with America may indeed prevent emigration at this particular moment: but, when amity is restored, and when the increasing burthens of this country suggest the expediency or impose the necessity of transplanting families to the western continent, the work before us may be advantageously consulted.—Before we transcribe any passages on this subject, however, we shall copy two specimens of his adventures in India: the first of which exemplifies his reflecting powers, and the second shews his readiness of invention and dexterity of operation in detecting imposture:

'*Extraordinary View of a Thunder-Storm when sitting far above it, with a Description of the Fort where it happened; its Effects on the Author, and his Observations.*

'The singular appearance of a thunder-storm, which I witnessed at Condepillee, deserves a better description than I am capable of giving; to enable the reader to form a clearer conception, it may be proper to give him some idea of the fort and situation.

'The whole comprehends three forts, one within the other. The pettah, or village, is to the eastward on the outside the fort, at the foot of the hills, and opening on the plains of Golconda. The wall of the outer fort, (as it is called) is some miles in extent, encompassing several hills; the wall itself is built not much unlike some of the stone fences to be seen in various parts of England, nor is it stronger. The middle fort is so high up the hills as to make the greater part of it inaccessible, by perpendicular rocks.—The passage up from the lower fort is formed by regularly-cut stone steps, several feet wide, and winding in its ascent up the valley. I have run up it in twenty minutes,

minutes, but it required three quarters of an hour to walk it leisurely.

'Little or nothing had been done, when I was there, to strengthen it, though very capable of improvement. The inner fort was an exceeding high pinnacle of a rock, completely inaccessible every way except by a narrow path up stone steps, so high from one to the other and insecure withal, as to require both hands and feet to climb up in safety. A large stone tank, or reservoir, hollowed out of the solid rock, was always full of water, and must have been supplied by the clouds, which often encompassed and crowned its head. Not being commanded by any other height, a few men could defend it against any force, so long as they had provision.

'In hot weather, we frequently ascended to the middle fort, on account of the pleasant temperature of the air; the difference being such, that while people below would be gasping for breath, from the heat, we could with pleasant ease move about, or even play at trap-ball, in this higher fort.

'I had one afternoon climbed up to the Devil's Arse a-Peak *, to enjoy the extensive prospect and breathe a cooler air, when the clouds began to gather along the eastern side of the mountain, about midway between me and the plain, or lower fort, where we resided. It was not long before the lightning and thunder produced a tremendous, but most awfully grand, effect from the clouds below me. The lower fort, the pettah, and plains, were deluged with rain, while I sat on high, with a serene, beautiful, clear, sky over my head, calmly looking down, delighted with the playful appearance of the lightning, as it darted in beautiful zig zags from the clouds at my feet, while the loud peals of thunder reverberated along the different valleys between the mountains.

'I have seen many grand sights, but never any thing comparable to the superlatively-glorious view that was then presented. I fancied myself like Jupiter, on Mount Olympus, when hurling his thunderbolts, &c. Nay, more, my heart bounded in ecstacy and grateful adoration to the Deity, who thus afforded me a kind of foretaste of supreme pleasure and happiness, arising from inward sensation more than from the grand outward spectacle I have been witness to, and which, prior to that moment, I could form no conception of enjoying. I felt as if ethereal rather than mortal; and it was not until long after the storm below had been dispersed, and the shades of evening were approaching, that I could persuade myself to leave the spot where I had experienced such exquisite mental felicity.

'Possibly there are many who may smile at my declaring, that, often since, when I have been in critical situations whether I should live or die, the recollection of this glimmering view of what a refined mind is capable of enjoying, has tended more to divest me of fear concerning death, and encouraged the hope of exchanging this life for a better, than any other circumstance, thing, or knowledge, I have otherwise obtained.'

'* A name given to the upper fort by the English.'

'*Bramins*

'*Bramins**; *I perform a Miracle.*

'I do not pretend to any learned knowledge or acquaintance with the Gentoo religion, yet I cannot refrain from making one remark: the Gentoos are accused as idolatrous heathen worshippers of images, which from outward appearances they may seem to be; but, from many inquiries among the Bramins, in whatever part of India I made any stay, it appeared that the various images they carry in procession are only considered as *emblems* of the different attributes of the Deity, and not as deities, or objects of adoration, in themselves.

'Of all denominations of men I have seen, I think there are none so chastely correct, in the discharge of religious and moral duties, as the Gentoos. This is pretty obvious on a general view of them: many instances came to my knowledge; and my faithful Punnapa, who served me from the first week I landed to the last minute of my stay, would have sacrificed his life sooner than have imposed on me himself, or suffered any one, European or native, to impose upon or injure his master in any respect. So far I speak to *his* moral character; and, being of a high Bramin cast, he would rather have lost his life than his cast, by acting contrary to any religious point of duty. Yet, among the lower casts of these, as well as the lower order of other people, there are those who will attempt to impose and practise on one's credulity. I will relate an instance that occurs to my memory.

'I was travelling with a party of officers and a guard of Sepoys. We stopped to refresh ourselves; and, among the inhabitants of a village, who came out to view us as objects of curiosity, one fellow was so unusually audacious as to force himself into the tent where we were dining, using strange gestures and making an extravagant noise. Having in vain endeavoured to learn his meaning, we ordered him out; he refused to go, and we then ordered the palanquin bearers in attendance to force him out. On his being thus removed to a short distance from our tent, we soon heard a confused noise and lamentation, and were informed that this fellow, who pretended to be a devotee, had swooned away from the effect of pollution, in being touched by our palanquin-bearers, who were Parriars †.

'We rather laughed at this account: louder lamentations were heard, and word was brought that the man was dead. We went out and found a great many people assembled round the body, lamenting and complaining loudly of the outrage. It became necessary to order our Sepoys under arms, and the servants to be on their guard. We sent for the head men of the village, and the body was thoroughly examined by the natives and pronounced to be dead. There certainly appeared no visible signs of life; but the trifling injury he could have received by the handling to overcome merely his own resistance, and the absurdity of a man's dying from the effect of fancied pollution, added to my experience of their powers of deception, perfectly satisfied my mind that this fellow was an impostor.

'* Gentoo priests, followers of Bramah, their celebrated founder.'

'† Men of the lowest cast.'

'Desiring

'Desiring my brother-officers to leave the business to my management, I acquainted the natives that I had an infallible means of knowing whether the man was dead or not; that, if there was the least spark of life remaining, since the body had received no injury, I could restore him, though the remedy would be exceedingly severe. They wanted to remove him; but this I would not suffer, well knowing they might make any report they pleased concerning his death and create much trouble.

'I laid hold of his hand, and was some time before I could feel a pulse, which completely satisfied me; but I kept my own counsel. Again the people pressed forward tumultuously, with an apparent design to carry the body away by force; but, ordering the Sepoys to advance with fixed bayonets, I made them retire to a distance, suffering only the head men to remain. In vain did I endeavour to persuade them that the man counterfeited, until, finding nothing else would do, I assured them I possessed powers they had no conception of, and, without touching the body again, I would convince them of the man being still alive, by drawing a flame from his body, which they should see, and which would continue burning and consuming him unless he arose from the earth. My brother-officers listened with nearly as much attention as the natives.

'I sent my Dubash, Punnapa, to enjoin silence to the multitude, as a miracle was going to be performed by a European Bramin, which he assured them I was, (knowing I had officiated as a chaplain).

'Ordering my travelling escrutoir to be brought, I placed it near the man's head, and took from it a wax taper, a small match, and a little bottle; articles I carried for the convenience of getting a light when wanted: I also took out a bit of sealing-wax, wrapped within a piece of white paper. I then directed all to be silent while the ceremony was performing, under pain of their being struck with death. Having had this explained by Punnapa to the chiefs, and by them again to the people, I was well satisfied the dead man heard and understood the whole, by slight involuntary twitchings I saw in his muscles.

'When all was quiet, I began by walking slowly round the extended body four times, laying one of the four articles each time at his feet; uttering, with a solemn loud voice, the following five Latin words that happened to occur, "*Omne bene, non sine panâ.*" I believe that the fall of a pin might have been heard while I was performing this mummery.

'Having managed with tolerable seriousness, I took up all the articles, stood across the man, and, raising both my arms as high as I could reach, called aloud, "*Si—lence!*" Then, bending over the body, I held the match in my right hand, the wax taper in my left; and, drawing the cork from the bottle of phosphorus, just above his navel, at the moment I applied the match to light it, as it were, from his body, I began to sing, "God save great George, our king." But, the instant the flame was seen, there was such a yell of "Ah, paw, swaamee, ah, yaw, swaamee," as completely drowned all my fine singing. Lighting my taper, I proceeded with my work, by melting the sealing-wax and dropping it hot, close above his navel; but the

the fellow had not patience to stay for more than two or three good drops of my miraculous wax, before he jumped up and ran away, bellowing and clawing his belly, without stopping to thank me for his cure or answering the calls of others, until he got within the village.

'That the fellow had heard and understood what passed, with my declaration that I possessed a power to draw forth a flame from his body, was evident; and I depended on the sudden attack of the burning wax, on so tender a part, heightened by his own imagination, to overthrow all the obstinacy of trick, and produce some such effect as would satisfy he was not dead. What his particular aim was, it might be difficult to make out.'

Mr. Jefferson strongly advised Mr. Harriott to establish himself in Virginia: but the feelings of the free-born Englishman revolted from a situation in which he must unavoidably employ negro-slaves. He therefore travelled from New York, by *coachees*, and such other modes of conveyance as he was able to procure, to the Back-Lands, which were represented as another Canaan, flowing with milk and honey. He was naturally much struck with the multiplicity of taverns, every third house being of that description; and he was still more surprised to observe that almost all the landlords united in themselves the highest civil and military functions. The following portrait is curious:

'We stopped at Judge Sterling's to refresh our horses. Hearing that he was first Judge of the county, I doubted whether it was a tavern, until my fellow-traveller called for cider, which the Judge readily drew for him. His appearance, in point of dress, was so singularly grotesque, in contrast to the dignity of his office, that I could not refrain minuting it down while he was waiting on his customers during the short stay we made. His hair was matted like a mop, and looked as if no comb had entered it for months past; he had on a ragged brown greasy jacket, the sleeves of which appeared to have been torn off; dirty canvas trowsers, no stockings, and very thick shoes tied with leather thongs. In a breast button-hole of his jacket was a short tobacco-pipe, completely japanned with smoke: this last article was a constant appendage to every Dutch settler I met, as well as to Judge Sterling.'

While large districts in these remote parts are neglected or abandoned by the proprietors, they are sometimes settled by an independent roving race, who are known by the name of *Squatters*:

'The log-houses with log-fences, in the uncultivated forests, have a singular and grotesque appearance to strangers. These are chiefly built by Squatters, a species of wild settlers, who never inquire of the proprietors of the land, but build their log-house, and take possession of what ground they think proper to clear for the growing a little Indian corn.

corn. These gentry do considerable damage to the forests, by burning the underwood, early in the spring, for the sake of a little grass that shoots up soon after.'

Mr. H. encountered three parties of men, women, and children, emigrating with their household goods, cattle, and implements in husbandry, from the United State, to the British territories in Upper Canada. The resemblance which they bore to the patriarchal families of old, removing from one country to another, was strengthened by hearing them addressed by names nine tenths of which are taken from the Old Testament, such as Reuben, Simeon, Dinah, Leah, &c. His political observations on this fact are intitled to attention.—Mr. H. quitted the Western Country with a full persuasion that no settler can reasonably expect to derive any great advantages from it, for a century or two at least.

On purchasing his farm in Long Island, the author found such difficulty in procuring white servants, that he was obliged to compromise his principles, and purchase negroes. On this subject, he shall speak for himself:

'Convinced I could not get on without purchasing black help, and reduced to the alternative of being a slave to my white servants or having slaves for my servants, I listened to some of the many applications made me from several negroes in the neighbourhood, who wished me to purchase them of their masters, and I bought four. To all of them, I promised freedom in the following manner. I divided the sum I gave for each into so many equal portions; and, opening a regular account, I engaged, at the close of every year, to set off one of these portions until the whole was discharged, and they then became free; provided they behaved well. Any very bad behaviour was to be punished with the mulct of such a part of the yearly portion, according to their demerits in that year; the decisions on which were to be publicly settled and made known to them every year, when assembled together for that purpose: which day I made a gala for them and all whom they chose to invite, nor did my heart ever dilate with much greater satisfaction than on the first of these gala-days, when, with my wife and children, we went among them in the height of their jollity in the evening; and dancing with them a few minutes only, made all completely happy. But I learned that this gave umbrage to some of my neighbours, who were jealous of its making their negroes discontented.'—

'When I got my black help, my white men refused to eat at the same table or same time, if in the same room with my black people, whether free or slaves. They even considered their own equality lessened, by not being permitted to eat at our table. This kind of pretence, set up by European servants, is much more insupportable from them than the native American; with the latter it is natural, and he looks for it without assuming any new consequence. But the European, on whom this assumption is awkwardly grafted, knows

knows not how to make this claim or acquiesce in giving it up, without exhibiting an ignorant, haughty, ferocious, kind of self-consequence, that is truly ridiculous as well as disagreeable. I tried, once or twice, what the effect of example would do. I was felling some large trees, in a wood at some distance from the house, when, having prepared a large meat-pie sufficient for six of us to dine on, and taking two black men, two white men, with my son and myself, we went to work in the forenoon. At twelve o'clock, sweeping the snow away from around one of the butts of the fallen trees, I called them all, saying, jocularly, "Come, boys, as we all work together, let us all eat and drink together." Then, cutting the pie into six equal shares, I handed a piece to each of my whites first, then to my blacks, lastly to my son and myself. But it was difficult to refrain from laughing at the contrast of the black and white countenances, while eating. The latter, surlily looking at each other, twisted their jaws about as if they had no appetite, while the former (after repeated excuses to wait until we had done, which I over-ruled,) sate with their eyes fixed bashfully on the ground, scarcely opening their mouths wide enough to admit their victuals, yet with a secret kind of smile when they leered at each other. In the morning, we had all worked chearfully alike; but, after this repast, scarcely a word escaped the lips of my white gentlemen, except short answers when I spoke to them: my black mates, on the contrary, were as much on the alert. When returned home, I understood they (the whites) had said, "Mr.... might eat with black men if he pleased, but they never would;" and, a few days after, they left me.'

It is to be regretted that Mr. H. quitted his farm before the result of his sensible and humane experiment could be ascertained; though his successor was under articles to continue the agreement with the negroes on the estate.

We must now, though not without reluctance, take leave of Mr. Harriott; to whom we are much indebted for the entertainment with which his history has supplied us. We sincerely hope that the evening of his eventful day may be prolonged in comfortable repose, cheared by the attentions and enlivened by the prosperity of a virtuous and affectionate family.

Den.

ART. VI. *Edwy and Elgiva, and Sir Everard;* two Tales, by the Rev. Robert Bland. 12mo. pp. 187. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

THE poetry of our country has been, for some time past, in danger of being divided between the opposite extremes of licentious irregularity and excessive polish. Some wild ballads from the German school, full of gloomy scenes, furious passions, and extravagant machinery, have absorbed the

the astonished faculties of one description of readers; while another has derived a calm and merely intellectual pleasure from a contemplation of detached pictures exquisitely drawn, indeed, delicately coloured, and highly finished, but so devoid of general animation as to have rather deserved the character of common-place ideas arranged ready for use under particular heads, than the praise of exciting a lively and continued interest as poetical compositions. We do not here question the talents of those who have devoted themselves to these separate styles; on the contrary, we have been always willing to bear ample testimony to their respective merits, when their works have fallen under our cognizance: but we wish to observe that the continual indulgence of these peculiar characteristics has endangered the permanent interests of genuine poetry, and has sometimes alarmed us with the apprehension that the strains of Dryden and Pope would be heard no more.

Mr. Bland's publication, however, affords one agreeable proof that a period so fatal to good taste and literature is not yet arrived. In two tales, he has embellished the charms of incident, character, description, and sentiment, with graceful diction, and harmonious versification. We do not often witness lines so uniformly smooth, joined with such diversity of cadence; and it is equally rare to meet with a style of such labored elegance, so easy in its general effect, and so free from vicious affectation.

The first tale is judiciously founded on that portion of our history, which is so far familiar to all readers as to awaken a ready attention, and at the same time sufficiently remote and obscure to allow of deviations from the received opinion without shocking our established notions of important historical truth. It is opened by these lines:

> 'Loud was the mirth, and sweet the minstrel's lay
> In hall and bower on Edwy's bridal day:
> High thanes and princes throng'd the board around,
> And sovereign beauty the rich banquet crown'd.
> 'From Egil's harp the song of joy began,
> Now old, but memory warm'd the tuneful man;
> Young on Northumbria's field he pour'd the strains
> That thrill'd the Pagan Anlaff and his Danes,
> Who rose in arms against the English line,
> With Ewen leagu'd and Scotish Constantine:
> At length from camps retiring in his age,
> Tho' now no more he wak'd the battle's rage,
> He knew the peaceful banquet to prolong,
> Skill'd in the many mysteries of song.'

So

So fair a dawn of promise, as is displayed in his epithalamium, was however overcast in a moment by the violence and intrigues of the powerful priests, Odo, and Dunstan. At the command of the former, Elgiva is forcibly borne away to Ireland; and the arm of Edwy is palsied by a dark and mysterious threat, that any attempt to pursue or avenge her shall be followed by her instant death. In this hour of trial, his fears as a lover are absorbed in his sense of duty as a king: but, while he leads his army to subdue the rebellious Mercians, who were leagued against him with his Northern enemies, a gallant knight of his court resolves to hazard every thing for the rescue of his queen.

'The pride of knights brave Clarenbert was known,
And all in grace and knightly feats outshone,
Yet curs'd by fortune, tho' enrich'd with power,
The child of Sorrow from his natal hour:
For with the very pangs that gave him breath,
His gentle mother clos'd her eyes in death.
His sire o'er distant regions bent to roam
From the blank sadness of a widowed home,
Sought foreign wars, and fell among the slain,
When German Otho fought in fair Lorrain.
Two sisters, trusted to a guardian's hands,
Who meanly thirsted for their gold and lands,
In budding charms when high their pulses beat
With youthful rapture, and the world was sweet,
By hellish arts subdu'd, were doom'd to shrowd
Their blooming beauties from th' admiring croud,
With cloister'd nuns to sadden out their years
In barren durance and reluctant tears.
Gay was his heart: but memory of his birth
Would oft with sorrow cloud his passing mirth,
He mourn'd a friendless state; and often wept
On the cold marble where his mother slept,
Wish'd from the sire on whom he hardly smil'd
Unconscious yet, to hear the name of child;
Oft solitary pac'd, in dead of night,
Around the walls of sainted Æthelbright,
Where lost for ever in their age's bloom,
Immur'd, and buried living in their tomb,
A guardian's curse th' unhappy maids deplore,
Forbad to hear or greet their brother more.
Hence, tho' in outward show devoid of care,
Pride of the brave, and pleasing to the fair,
Tho' foremost in the brilliant court he shone,
Yet, loathing life, he lov'd to muse alone;
And, looking to the void futurity,
Resolv'd to dare some glorious deed, and die.

'Bound to his prince by loyalty and blood,
The first of champions in his cause he stood,
Not the gay comrade of his happier hour
To swell his train and idolize his power,
But most a friend, when other friends withdrew,
E'en in the winter of his fortunes true.
Elgiva's youth by tyranny oppress
First warm'd with enterprise his vacant breast;
And if his death the destinies decreed,
On beauty's side 'twere happiness to bleed.
Hence to his lord he swore by knighthood's laws
To free the fair, or perish in her cause.'

The war is terminated by a bold attack on the Pagans, when assembled to celebrate the rites of their bloody superstition. Edwy, still deterred from all attempts to save Elgiva by the tremendous denunciation before mentioned, (though perhaps this motive is scarcely made sufficiently prominent,)

'Strives to lose his discontent
In vigorous toil and manly hardiment,'

in the various exercises of the chace, and the sports of mimic war. Returning one day through the wood of Andereda, or the New Forest, he is betrayed, by an accidental pursuit of robbers, into a cavern, where he encounters his long lost 'Elgiva fainting in a youth's disguise.' After the first effusions of surprise and joy, she relates the history of her confinement, and her escape, which was purchased by the death of her bold champion and redeemer, Clarenbert. Edwy's pleasure at this unexpected meeting is damped by the sad recital; and his lamentation over his friend is truly pathetic. He is still fearful of acknowleging his consort in the face of the world; since, though Odo was no more, Dunstan was equally powerful, bigotted, and relentless. He leaves her, therefore, when it is necessary for him to appear in his palace, under the protection of the two Earls, who happened to attend him on the expedition. Athelard was brave and loyal: but Sigbert, in revenge for some supposed injuries, betrayed his trust to the pontiff, whose mysterious myrmidons were found haunting the cavern by Edwy on his return, having first compelled the unfortunate Elgiva to swallow poison. The agonies of his despair are deeply tragic; and the following mournful description closes the poem:

'A deadly paleness shrouded o'er her charms,
She grasp'd his hand, and languish'd in his arms,
Yet soothed on him her closing sight to rest,
And sigh her gentle soul into his breast.

Scarce

Scarce* yet slow-pacing thro' her livid veins
A ruddy drop the warmth of life retains;
Scarce* fetter'd at the door that led to peace
The spirit stood, and waited her release;
Scarce* at the key the guardian pulses still
With dull and lazy beat their charge fulfil;
Her eye, that fail'd her with her failing breath,
A languid pleasure look'd, and closed in death.'—

'Sir Everard' is a purely fictitious, but a very well told and striking fable. He is described as living on a lone and barren island with two sons, with whom he shares the labors of hunting and fishing, and whose minds he studiously forms to all that is good and honorable. We are here forcibly reminded of Belarius and his two pupils, in Cymbeline; and of the fine passage which ascribes their elevation of soul to their royal extraction:

"How hard it is to hide the sparks of Nature!
These boys know little they are sons to th' king—
They think they're mine: and, though trained up thus meanly
I' th' cave, whereto they bow, their thoughts do hit
The roofs of palaces; and nature prompts them,
In simple and low things, to prince it, much
Beyond the trick of others," &c.

Sir Everard thus describes the effect of his instructions on his sons:

'Yet tho' of men unseen ye here might dwell,
Your natures hiding in this narrow cell,
I train'd ye up as sprung of noble blood,
And proudly bent your willing minds to good;
To high-born honour nursed your early prime,
That still thro' every chance, in every clime,
Long as the streams flow downwards from their source,
Or flames the sun in his eternal course,
In crowds, in solitude, or bond, or free,
Has been the same, and ne'er shall cease to be.'

The history of this insulated family was long concealed from the ardent curiosity of the youths; till at length a supernatural trance, which lasted all night, and was six times repeated, dissolved the mystery, and allowed the father to relate the story of his life. A Neapolitan lord, he had fought for France at Créci, and was taken prisoner by the English, among whom he passed his captivity with great enjoyment, and united himself in wedlock to a daughter of the Earl of Devonshire. His younger brother 'stole on his secure hour,' attacked him with a piratical force, tore his wife from his

* This corrupt use of the adjective for the adverb is becoming much too prevalent both in prose and rhime.

embraces, possessed himself of all his lands, and sent him to the hopeless exile of the desert island, with his two sons and a daughter, the latter of whom soon fell a victim to the hardships of the climate.—During the trance above described, the embodied spirit of Sir Everard had visited his ravished patrimony, and terrified the cruel usurper of it, whose awakened conscience could no longer endure to reap the fruits of a crime so dreadfully avenged. Driven by remorse and despair, he flies the scene of his wickedness, and can find no repose till he re-instates his brother in the possession of his rights, restores his wife, whom he had held in confinement, and takes up the wretched abode, which is now abandoned by Sir Everard; there to expiate his guilt, by a voluntary submission to the same miseries which he had inflicted on his brother.

The apparition of the living soul, as described in this poem, differs from the Scottish "Wraith," not only in the object for which it is presented, but in a still more striking respect,—we mean the *consciousness* that accompanies it during the supernatural visit:

'Full in my sight the damn'd usurper stood,
Then *frighted* had retired within the wood,
But that my potent presence seem'd to root,
With unresisted force, his hastening foot.
Wan was his face, and hollow sunk his eye,
As though he pined amid satiety.
No word I spoke, but all his memory fill'd
With bitterness, and every limb with horror thrill'd.

"Or when at night he courted sweet repose,
In likeness of my former self I rose
Joyous in youth, as when in happier days
Charm'd with gay life, athirst for idle praise,
Ere by his cursed wiles deprived of rest,
I thought it one to live and to be blest.

"Or on the banquet hour obscure I stole,
Unbidden guest, and harrow'd up his soul;
Pale, sad, and viewless to the crowd beside,
I probed his bosom, and rebuked his pride,
Temper'd the lively juice with dull alloy,
And breathed of sadness in the lyre of joy;
Then hasten'd on——Obedient to my hand
The doors flew open at their lord's command.
In a dark cell immured I saw, and faint
With watchful grief, my heart's enshrined saint,
And thus consoled her:—"Rest thee, Geraldine!
I was thy lord, again thou shalt be mine.
Fear not, sweet soul;—for, tho' by night I rise,
I bode no evil but to guilty eyes;
Tho' my foul kinsman, who our peace betray'd,
Starts from his conscience bodied in my shade,

To

To thee I come but to assuage thy fears,
To calm thy sorrows, and to dry thy tears,
And in my coming bring thee tokens sweet,
Full of bright promise that we soon shall meet.
On Thule's shore, where summers never bloom,
My dwelling is—and tho' upon the tomb
Of dear Estrella, dead in infancy,
I daily sit, and muse on her and thee,
Yet our two sons the season's difference brave
To please our age, and mourn us in the grave."

We transcribe also the corresponding part in the speech of the brother:

'Six times on me thy lonely image rose,
Nor day imparted joy, nor night repose;
Six times my sword lay pow'rless at my feet,
Nor tow'r, nor grove, secured me a retreat
From those dire visits, and in vain I try
To shun in crowds thy curst society.
For sense was lodg'd within the very walls,
And sounds unbidden murmur'd thro' the halls;
The very trees their rightful lord express,
And brooks had tongues to tell my guiltiness.
E'en holy pray'er, to which the suffering fly
And find a respite from their misery,
Nor hope, nor balm, afforded to my woes—
But from the shrines uncomforted I rose,
And from the chapel to the banquet pass'd,
Scared at thy thought, or at thy sight aghast.'

These outlines of the poems are in general filled up with a skilful hand: but, as Mr. B. expresses an intention of continuing his work, and as we have been induced by his promising talents to pay more than common attention to these tales, we must not conclude without pointing out the only considerable fault in them; and this we regard as the more necessary, since the line of composition, in which he is ambitious of excelling, is that of poetical narrative. The fault to which we allude is an occasional abruptness in the recital, and an ungraceful want of connection in the chain of events. It will be enough to give this hint to the author; who, on a review of his poem, will find many instances of what we condemn, without our particularising them. The correction of this defect appears to us essential to that degree of success in this species of poetry, to which Mr. Bland's genius should prompt him to aspire.—Some minor objections may also be made to these compositions. On the score of rhime, for example, a few inaccuracies may be charged on the author. At p. 13. we read,

'Their prince's guilt a suffering people *bears*,
Aton'd at last but by a nation's *tears*;'

in which couplet, though the orthography of the final words be exact almost to identity, a due pronunciation (according to the *norma loquendi*) gives an inadequate rhime.—As also in p. 21.

'And when with anger he began to *strive*,
Then first he liv'd, and felt it bliss to *live*.'

and in other places.

P. 8. 'And oft the blushing bride, with trembling *haste*,
An answering look on ardent Edwy *cast*.'

P. 62. 'And almost weep, to pity half *subdued*,
Whene'er I turn their savage souls from *blood*.'

P. 118. 'Here round the winding bay the eye *surveys*
High tow'rs of state and splendid *palaces*.'

In p. 68. we have so palpable an imitation of Milton, that Mr. B. might almost have distinguished the line with quotation commas:

'When morning strew'd the ground with orient pearl.'

It has also occurred to us as remarkable that Mr. Bland should have clothed these tales in heroic verse, in preference to the ballad stanza, which seems always to have been devoted to such compositions as most appropriate by its touching simplicity.

From some of the notes, it may be inferred that we are indebted to the author of the present work for the Translations from the Greek Anthology, to which we endeavoured to render justice, in a late number; and to which we sincerely hope that he will keep his promise of adding a second volume, consisting of speeches from the tragedians. Those of Alcestis, Electra, and Philoctetes, which are here presented, authorize our expectations of a high degree of poetic merit in the projected publication.

ART. VII. *Archæologia:* or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity, published by the Society of Antiquaries of London, Vol. XV. 4to. pp. 423. 2l. 2s. Boards. White. 1806.

THOSE individuals, who are bent on the improvement of the mind, will regard no book as dull which communicates knowlege; and how much soever they may be amused by the elegant details of history, they will not rest satisfied without examining the materials and evidence on which that history rests. The manners, customs, mode of life, and in short the state

state of society, literature, and the arts, among our ancestors, will be more fully and satisfactorily ascertained by attending to those documents and fragments which they have left, than by the most polished modern narratives. In this view, many of the papers which are published in the *Archæologia* are to be regarded as illustrative appendages to our national history, which are worthy of general consultation. The volume before us contains 39 articles, including many curiosities of this kind; which, though we are forced to notice them in a brief manner, are not on the whole unentertaining nor uninteresting.

Moy.

We are first presented with four communications respecting the family and the times of our Scottish King, James. That which takes the lead is, *A declaration of the diet and particular fare of K. Charles the first, when Duke of York; communicated by* Edmund Turnor, Esq. with notes by the late Mr. Brand, Secretary. It is a MS. on vellum, commencing on the first day of January 1610, under the sign manual of James his father. We give one of the orders: 'for his Grace at Breakefaste.... Maincheat, 2, Cheate 1, Beere 2 Ga., Mutton 1, Chickens 2, Milke, butter, &c. per diem. 8d.' According to Mr. Brand's explication, 'Maincheat, or Manchet, was white Bread made in rolls, broad in the middle and sharp at the ends. *Manchet* is nothing but a corruption of *Main cheate*, i. e. principal kind of *cheate*, so that *cheate* is the radical word, which we may without any straining derive from *achet**. French i. e. *bread bought or purchased*, in opposition to that of a *coarser* quality made in the house for general use.'

An explanation of the old words *Gallopins*, signifying scullions, *Doulcets*, a species of custard, and *Chewets*, a dish in cookery, is subjoined. The derivation of *Manchet*, in this paper, is more satisfactory than that of Skinner, which Mr. Turnor adduces as an instance to prove that Etymology has not been unaptly styled *Eruditio ad libitum*. Yet, though we may occasionally smile at its vagaries, it is essential to the antiquary, and to all those who wish to affix to words their precise meaning.

An account of the Revenue, the Expences, the Jewels, &c. of Prince Henry, seems rather misplaced, in following that of a younger brother. It is communicated by William Bray, Esq. who, among the papers of Sir Julius Cæsar, discovered some farther and considerable documents on the subject; particularly relative to the confusion, extravagance, and enormous expence which prevailed in the family: which abuses, had his

'* See Cotgrave in verbo.'

life been protracted, Prince Henry would probably have endeavoured to reform. His revenue is said to be in all 49,315l. 7s. 10¾d.; in a former paper, it was stated to be only 19,322l. 7s. 7d. besides woods and parks.

The narrative of Mr. (afterwards Sir Henry) Yelverton, of what passed on his being restored to the King's favour in 1609, *whom he had disobliged by his freedom of speech and conduct in parliament*, forms indeed a curious paper, presented to the Society by James Cumming, Esq. but from what archives it is drawn, or in whose possession it has been preserved, we are not particularly informed. It is written by Sir Henry himself, who expresses the deepest compunction and distress at having been brought under his Majesty's displeasure. He was, we apprehend, among the number of those who could not approve the high notions which James entertained of the royal prerogative; nor his zealous labours, whatever might at times be his professions, for the attainment of arbitrary power. That monarch's principles and his heart were, too evidently, of a despotic nature; yet we observe not unfrequently something specious and plausible in his speeches. One expression of Yelverton, which is said to have enraged the king, is that 'we should weigh his reasons, as we do his coyne.'—We cannot enter into the details of this copious narrative, the perusal of which will hardly fail of affording amusement and instruction: but we must observe that, as illustrative of character, some parts of the speech of King James are curious: "Think not, (says he,) it was any cause of my mislike of you that you spake your conscience, and used that liberty of opposition I deny to none. For if a King should force to bind all to his opinion, where usage consonant to reason hath given the subject free consent of denyal and rejection, it were the part of a fool or a tyrant."

Details respecting the English navy have at different times made no uninteresting part of these volumes. In addition to former memorials, we now find here an *Extract from an original Manuscript of the beginning of the reign of* James I., communicated by the late Rev. J. Brand. It gives the names of the ships, together with the number of men, and different military furniture: in all, 25 ships of war, forming a striking contrast between the royal navy of England during the reign of James I. and its force in that of George III.

It has been said that our Board of Admiralty are often puzzled to find names for new ships; if this be the case, the list in this paper might afford them a few curious hints. The *Acates*, the *White Bear*, and the *Bull*, were names given to James's ship of war.—It is worthy of notice that the largest vessel

here mentioned is the *Triumphe*, of 1000 tons; while the *Hibernia*, launched about two years ago, was stated to measure 2400 tons.—The mode of equipping and fighting king's ships was very different in the time of James from that which now prevails, as will be evident from a glance at the account of the crew and furniture of the *Triumphe*, viz.; '450 mariners, 50 gunners, 250 souldiers; Furniture, 250 calivers, 50 bowes, 100 arrow-sheffes, 200 pyks, 200 bills, 150 corsletts, 200 murians.'

Moy.

With this list are united, from the same MS., '*Extracts of the general mustars taken throughout the whole realme of England and Wales.*' The amount, exclusive of a large force placed under different heads, is, '296,131 able men, 1,413,105 armed men, and 6,777 high horses.'

Pompey's pillar employs the fifth article of this collection. Observations on this subject have not unfrequently engaged the attention both of the learned critic and of historical inquirers in general. This paper is principally formed by a letter from Capt. W. M. Leake and Lieut. John Squire of the Royal Engineers, to Matthew Raine, D.D., which, with their consent, has been communicated to the Society. It is honourable to these young gentlemen, and to Lieut. Dundas, to have filled up such leisure time as their official duties might allow, by this kind of investigation; and it is to be lamented that they have lost by shipwreck those notes and journals, which might have advanced the discovery of the *Inscription* here communicated, and have produced farther interesting remarks on the pillar and other subjects. Dr. Raine suggests that the word, in which all the letters excepting the first two (Πο) are obliterated, was Πομπηϊος, the name of the Prefect of Egypt, from whom the pillar derived its appellation, and not from Pompey the Great, and who dedicated it to the Emperor Diocletian.

If this account of the inscription be accurate, and conjecture and bold fancy have not erroneously helped out the eye, we are led to the æra of the erection of this column, viz. to the reign of Diocletian: but Dr. Raine's conjecture of Πομπῆιος, which best agrees with the number of deficient letters, and with the usual denomination of the Pillar, differs from that of Ποντιος, suggested by Mr. Hayter, in the first account of the decyphering of these words, as printed in Capt. Walsh's Journal of the Egyptian campaign. (See Rev. Vol. xli. N.S. p. 135.) Capt. L. and Mr. S. do not attempt to supply the illegible letters.

Moy. G. 2.

An Account of the visit of Henry VI. to the Abbey of Bury St. Edmund, communicated by Craven Ord, Esq. is chiefly an extract in the Latin language from an old MS. The King appears to have made this excursion very early, viz.; about the 12th year of his age and of his reign.

We

We now return to the days of James I.; and it will undoubtedly amuse some readers to peruse the account here given, from a MS. presented by Sir Joseph Banks, of the nobility of that time, the offices and fees of the king's household, ministers of law, keepers and officers of castles, houses, and parks, with a great variety of other particulars.

Account of an Abbey of Nuns formerly situated in the Street now called the Minories, in the County of Middlesex and Liberty of the Tower of London, by Henry Fly, D.D. This was a very antient foundation: the nuns had the appellation of *Sorores Minores*, in token of humility; and from this circumstance that part of our metropolis derives its name.

The antient rolls of Papyrus, with the method employed to unroll them, form a subject which may be thought to admit of much greater detail than is found in the sensible and well-written letter of the Hon. Henry Grey Bennet. The inside coating of the plant called *Papyrus* appears to have constituted these Rolls; and a Sicilian, near Syracuse, is said to have established a small manufactory of the article, but rather 'to gratify the wishes of the curious than to reap any immediate profit.' Concerning the discoveries at Herculaneum, we are here informed that about fifteen men are at work, each of them occupied at a MS.; and though little has hitherto been accomplished, yet, as they now become more expert, something more important may be anticipated. A plate is here given, affording a view of the machine which is used in this operation.

Many years have elapsed since we have heard of the literary treasure found at Herculaneum; and high expectations were formed of the discoveries which would probably result. We hoped that the works of Livy and other antient authors, which have descended to us in a mutilated state, would have been rendered perfect: but, though several MSS. have been unrolled, literature seems to receive no accession to its stores.

Mos.

Celts, pieces of copper swords, and heavy pieces of fine copper, evidently, it is said, brought for fusion, and discovered by a farmer in the parish of Lanant, Cornwall, have led to the conclusion that this place originally possessed a military foundery: small and thin bars of gold, but none larger than a straw, were also found with them. The Rev. Malachy Hitchins writes an account of these and of some others of a like kind, together with spear-heads, &c. discovered in his own parish of St. Hilary.—As to *Celts*, it seems very uncertain what was their proper and immediate use.

Many pages of the volumes of this Society have been devoted to the discussion of the *Tumuli* or barrows scattered in all

parts of this country, even till the reader is almost tired of perusing repetitions which contribute so little to any valuable purpose. Mr. William Cunnington of Heytesbury, although apparently convinced of this fact, has with great attention examined many of these *tumuli*, which are numerous in the county of Wilts; and he furnishes their history in three letters to Mr. Lambert. Besides human bones or skeletons, a great number of instruments of bone, stone, and flint, presented themselves to view; together with a ring of a black substance, used no doubt as an amulet, and other materials, which we cannot enumerate. One of those which are here particularly described is concluded to have been an early Celtic sepulchre: another, from a number of glass and amber beads, is conjectured to have been erected over the remains of some illustrious female; and a third, from the gold, amber, and valuable ornaments which appeared, is supposed to have been 'the sepulchre of some great chief; in all probability a chief of the Celtic Britons.'—Six plates illustrate this paper.

Copy of the original death-warrant of Humphrey Littleton, communicated by T. R. Nash, D.D.—This paper was found at the house of Mr. Bromley, Aberley-lodge, in the county of Worcester; and great commendation is bestowed on the engraver for the accuracy of his copy. Humphrey Littleton was 'condemyned for releiving, and harbouring of the traitors, Robert Winter and Stephen Littleton, contrary to the proclomacons made in that behalfe;' and it appears that they were concerned in what is termed the Powder-plot. We find here a fac simile of the signatures of several of the privy council, commissioners for the trial of the conspirators; and Dr. Nash presents us with some short and amusing remarks concerning these commissioners.—Of the Chancellor, Sir Thomas Egerton, Lord Ellesmere, we are told,—'He was a man of uncommon gravity, so that he was seldom seen to smile, and of that venerable countenance that many went to the court of chancery to see him; happy, says Fuller, were they who had no other business there.' Of Sackville, Earl of Dorset, we read that 'he may be ranked with the first men of the age in his literary and political character: early in life he was extravagant, and greatly lessened his fortune. The indignity of being kept in waiting by a person of whom he went to borrow money, made so deep an impression on him, that he resolved from that moment to be an œconomist; and managed thenceforth his own property so well, that he was thought a proper person to succeed Lord Burleigh as High-treasurer.' It does not appear that Dr. Nash has any doubt concerning the reality of the popish conspiracy: nevertheless, while we admit that the account

count itself is interesting, though somewhat confused, and a little inconsistent when the writer speaks concerning the Jesuits, we must add that infidels on the subject of the Popish plot still exist.

An Account of the Italian game of cards called Minchiate is presented by Robert Smith, Esq. It is a subject of curiosity and entertainment, but does not admit of any particular description from us.

We must not, however, thus slightly pass over the paper which follows, containing an *Account of the Ruins of Carthage and of Udena in Barbary, by* John Jackson, *Esq.* since this memoir is highly curious and amusing. A commercial nation, as we are, cannot without considerable interest reflect on the fate of a people who were formerly as much celebrated for commerce as we can be at present; whose opulence was the admiration of the world, and the object at once of the envy and the cupidity of the Romans. We cannot convey by description an adequate idea of aqueducts, arches, buildings, chambers, cements, variegated marbles, and Mosaic works: but from the vestiges of Carthage which still remain, we may infer its antient magnificence, and the riches which at the period of its grandeur it acquired from trade. Englishmen have not taken more pains to supply their metropolis with water, than were manifested by the inhabitants of Carthage in order to procure the same necessary element; since we may yet discern the remains of an aqueduct above seventy miles in length, by means of which the Carthaginians conducted a stream of water through mountains and over valleys.—Mr. Jackson notices the site of antient Carthage as a most excellent situation for commerce, and remarks that no part of the world could afford better accommodation for shipping.—The remains, which form the subject of this paper, are situated about twelve miles north-west of Tunis, and do not for the most part present themselves to the eye of the traveller; for the plough now passes over a great portion of the ruins of Carthage, and, says Mr. J., 'I have seen a very abundant crop of wheat, under which were many handsome apartments in a very perfect state.'

Udena, which stands about twenty miles south from Tunis, must have been a city of some consequence, though it is not mentioned by Leo, Shaw, nor any other traveller; for besides large marble columns, &c., it exhibits the remains of a noble amphitheatre, about 200 yards in circumference.

Mo-y

Extracts from a MS. Book of Accounts, entitled "Le Livre des Acconts pour Chevalier Jean Franeklyn en son Maison au Welsden," communicated by Sir John Charden Musgrave, *Bart.*

Sir

Sir John Franklyn, knight, appears to have been an excellent and amiable man, if we may judge from his epitaph in Wilsden church, Middlesex, prettily composed by his widow, and bearing the stamp of honour and of truth. The extract here given is from 'A Book of perticuler layings out for my Mr. from the 3d of Septr. Anno Domini, 1624.' It shews the difference of prices in that not very distant period and the present; beginning with 'a quart of Canary Sacke, 1s., and a pint of white wine, 3d.'—Again,—'Paid to Joyce for her halfe yeares wages, 13s. 4d.—Quart of epecrist (hippocras or spiced wine) 1s. 6d.—a quart of wine 8d.': but it seems a high charge when we read, 'for a pare of red silke stockings, 1l. 10s., and for a pare of worsted stockings, 8s.'

Taylor Combe, Esq. communicates the *Copy of an Indenture, made in* 1469, *between King Edward IV. and William Lord Hastings, Master of the Mint, respecting the regulation of the Coinage in the Tower of London.* The original is in the possession of Mr. Combe.—It is said to be, and, we think, very justly, a fine specimen of the language and orthography of the time in which it was drawn; and also to contain much information respecting the coinage and management of the mint at that period. To particularize its merits, however, must be left to each reader's own observation.

The Rev. Henry Beeke, D.D. has employed great attention in his remarks *on the ancient Inhabitants, Roman stations, and Roman roads, in and near Berkshire.* He observes that the *Bibroci* in England had for their capital *Bibracte*, so named from the city of *Bibrax* near Rheims, mentioned by Cæsar in the 2d book of his Commentaries; and vestiges of these names may be found in those of *Bray*, *Bray*-wick, *Bracknell*, &c.—In another part of the disquisition, Dr. B. says, 'I have sometimes thought that the names of East and West Shireborne, a few miles to the south of Silchester, indicate that the hundred of Holdshot, including that (*very ancient*) city, was once reputed a part of Berkshire instead of Hampshire, and that also these names indicate the ancient boundaries between the *Belgæ* and the *Segontiaci*.' The latter of these are supposed to have lived in and near *Vindomis*, now Silchester, between *Venta Belgarum* or Winchester, and *Caleva*, the capital of the *Attrebates*. This *Caleva* appears to have been in the direct road from London to Bath, and according to calculations of distance must have been in or near *Reading*, or more antiently *Redinges*, a Saxon word, *Reed ings* or meadows: now it is observed that 'the manor of *Coley* is on the west of Reading, and includes a part of that town; we may therefore conclude that this considerable manor derives its name from *Caleva*.'

Remarks

Remarks on the different kinds of Trial by Ordeal, which formerly prevailed in England, by Robert Studley Vidal, *Esq.* This letter contains merely a correction of inaccuracies in the accounts given of the subject by different writers; as for instance, Sir W. Blackstone, who is mentioned with great respect, has described one kind of fire ordeal as 'performed by *taking up* in the hand a piece of red hot iron of one, two, or three pounds weight;' whereas it is here said that the culprit was to *receive it* in his hand*; and respecting the weight, it was either of *one* or of *three* pounds†, according to the offence.

Mr. Vidal, also, in another letter prosecutes '*an Inquiry concerning the Site of Kenwith, or Kenwic, castle in Devonshire.*' Respect and honour are attached, in an Englishman's memory, to this fortress, if he be acquainted with it's history. About the year 878, the ferocious Danes so greatly molested and ravaged several parts of the kingdom that they seemed almost completely victorious. The Earl of Devon, in this extremity, is said to have retired with a small band of brave men into this castle, which the desperate invaders soon besieged: the Earl, finding it impossible to defend the place, prevailed on his companions to make a bold sally; the attempt succeeded: the Danes were vanquished; their principal leader was killed; their consecrated standard, in which they reposed great confidence, was taken; and the immortal Alfred, after a concealment of six months, was by these means brought forth from his hiding-place to command his army and conduct the government.—It will be truly remarkable, if, after Camden had considered every vestige of this renowned fortress as obliterated in his day, and Baxter had corroborated the account, the spot should now be discovered. Mr. Vidal writes with a laudable diffidence, which lays no claim to decision: yet he apprehends that the search has not been wholly without success; and he offers probable reasons to support such a belief. He has manifested great diligence, and furnishes an agreeable account of his labours and inquiries.

Whatever evils arise from the inconsiderate and reprehensible destruction of trees and woods in this kingdom, it is

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* Possibly, antient accounts might mean nothing more than that the offender should hold in his hand a piece of red-hot iron; and readers in this, as in other instances, mistake the writer's intention, who might have had no reference to the manner in which it was deposited.

† In allusion to which, the trial was denominated either *simplex* or *triplex*.

surely

surely a great blessing to be relieved from the extreme rigour and severity of the forest laws, which in antient times persecuted and oppressed the subject. To persons who had experienced their harassing effects, even in their lower degrees, the value and importance of any secure protection or immunity, which in such cases might be granted, must be great. Philip Henry Leathes, Esq. here presents the *Copy of an original Charter of Exemption from the Forest-laws, granted by King Henry 3d to Stephen de Segrave.* This Stephen, says Camden, "reached the summit of his ambition with difficulty, supported himself there with much trouble, and met with a sudden fall." History also informs us that 'he managed all the affairs of the nation as he pleased,' but that 'at length he quite lost the king's favour, and lay concealed 'till his death in a monastery.'—The charter itself, of which this is a transcript, was purchased out of the collection of the late Sir Charles Frederick. It is written in the Latin language, and is short.—The explication of the terms used, with a relation of the offices, customs, &c. respecting forest-law, furnish an informing and not unpleasant detail, and are creditable to the researches and attention of the writer. **Hi.**

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *Modern Geography.* A Description of the Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Colonies; with the Oceans, Seas, and Isles; in all Parts of the World: including the most recent Discoveries, and political Alterations. Digested on a new Plan. By John Pinkerton. The Astronomical Introduction by the Rev. S. Vince, A.M. F.R.S., and Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in the University of Cambridge. With numerous Maps, revised by the Author. To the Whole are added a Catalogue of the best Maps, and Books of Travels and Voyages, in all Languages; and an ample Index. A new Edition, greatly enlarged. 4to. 3 Vols. 6l. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

NEVER was a book introduced to the public with a prouder boast from its author than that which we here announce. "Shut up in measureless content," Mr. Pinkerton, in his preface and introduction, displays the high satisfaction with which he contemplates his labours; and in his Memoir on the progress of Geography, he apprizes the reader not only that his friends have chosen to term him the English Strabo, but that, if he may trust many literary journals and letters from distinguished persons of various countries, he has remarkably succeeded in the present undertaking. As Mr. P. stands on such very

very good terms with himself, it may appear ill natured to attempt to disturb them; yet, as our duty is not to compliment but to examine, he must not be angry if his merits do not weigh quite so heavily in our scales as in his own. We are glad to receive from him a work which is in some measure calculated to remove from our country the opprobrium under which it has long laboured, on account of the glaring errors and deficiences which disgrace our books of general Geography; and we admit that he has presented us with a production which we need not be ashamed to own as of British growth, which is not a mere bookseller's job, but is the fruit of the persevering study of a man of letters, and has been conducted on the principles and for the advancement of science. Yet we cannot crown this eulogy by assigning to him that perfection, nor even that near approach to perfection, which he seems in his own opinion to have attained.

To what are commonly termed the *four quarters* of the globe, Mr. Pinkerton has added *Australasia*, or South Asia, comprising New Holland;* which, as he informs us, men of science begin to call Notasia, (would not the equivoque be avoided by calling it *Novasia?*) for which we search in vain in the common maps of Asia; and *Polynesia*, (from πολυς many and νησος island,) including the numerous clusters of islands scattered in the Great or Pacific ocean, which separates the continents of Asia and America. Thus, in modern Geography, the globe is separated into *six quarters* or grand divisions, four terrene and two maritime; and since no new discoveries can be made to affect these grand arrangements, the author may be justified in considering them as fixed: but, though they may be judicious, the term *six quarters* will seem incorrect to an English ear; and we are told that the word *quarter*, as applied to these primary divisions of our globe, is growing out of use.

Maps and charts being allowed by Mr. P. to rank among the chief objects of Geography, we must express our surprise that, in his *celebrated* work, these essential appendages to a complete geographical system have been given in so diminutive a size;—in a size too small for any real use, and calculated only for very young eyes. A map of Europe on a quarto page is ludicrously minute, and, unless a magnifying glass be at hand, cannot be consulted by ordinary optics. The mode, moreover, in which the sea is represented, though highly commended by Mr. P. as a wonderful improvement, we cannot praise; since it not only gives a heavy and sombre appearance,

* See p. 238 of this Review.

but,

but, as he says some Frenchmen have remarked, the names of islands are scarcely legible in the black strokes. A work of this magnitude and price ought to be complete in itself, independently of the superb Atlas which Mr. P. has subsequently announced.—We are sorry that the example of this Geographer's small plates with black seas has been followed in the New Cyclopedia, which is a national work, and the embellishments of which in other instances are respectable. The French mode of engraving plates is preferable to this boasted discovery, which we trust that Mr. P. will not introduce into his forthcoming splendid Atlas.

The original edition of this performance comprised only two volumes, the first of which was appropriated to Europe, containing 654 pages besides the preface, introduction, and appendix; and the second being devoted to Asia, America, and Africa, consisting of 777 pages, together with an appendix, catalogue of maps and books, and an index *. This new impression is more than one half larger than the first, making three volumes; the first allotted to Europe, and containing 930 pages, including a preface, an advertisement, a memoir on geography, an introduction to astronomy, a dissertation on the origin of astronomy and geography, the projection of maps, and an appendix; the second relating to Asia, consisting of 820 pages exclusive of a memoir on discoveries in Asia, of 52; and the third, to America and Africa, containing 1006 pages, including an appendix, a catalogue of maps and books of voyages and travels, and an index.

In the advertisement, Mr. Pinkerton thus assigns his reasons for so great an enlargement of the work:

'At length the author has been enabled to complete his favourite plan, of presenting to the public a system of modern geography, duly proportioned in all its parts, and such as to offer harmony and uniformity in its various divisions and arrangements. For in the first edition, restricted to two volumes, a great portion of Asia, and the whole of America and Africa, had been necessarily treated with such brevity, that there was no space even for the most important and interesting geographical information. The striking brevity and deficiency of the latter half of the second volume were perceived abroad as well as at home; and the translators laboured by long notes, to supply what the author knew, from experience, repeated reflection, and the most sedulous examination of the subject, could only be remedied by enlarging the arrangement. In a general system of geography, intended for general information, it is indispensable that there be a harmony of the parts; and the author must be an impartial cosmo-

* We did not give any account of the first edition; having heard, while examining it, that a second was preparing.

polite, without predilection for particular portions. The account of his own country ought, indeed, to be rather diffuse, not from partial views, or national vanity, but to serve as an introduction to the rest; it being neccessary, in the first place, that the reader should be intimately acquainted with his native soil. But in the others a strict and impartial distribution ought to be observed, not only in imitation of the classical models of antiquity, whose examples are the safest to follow, as they have stood the test of so many ages; but from the very nature of the subject, which requires that readers of all countries and *pursuits*, may find themselves gratified by a due extent of information concerning any country which they may wish to examine.

'At the same time it needs not be disguised that, when the author composed the first edition of this work, he sometimes laboured under a deficiency of materials, particularly recent Spanish books, of the utmost importance for the exact geography of their extensive colonies, or rather empires, in America; but which, after the most careful researches, could not be found in this country. Zealous to remedy this defect, and at the same time to study with more advantage the present state of geography in France, the only country which can rival England in this department, he went to Paris, where meeting with the most flattering and cordial reception from the most eminent men of science, for which he must be permitted to retain lasting gratitude, he was enabled, not only to procure the Spanish authors wanted, but greatly to increase his fund of materials; and though detained by the well known events of the war much longer than he expected, he cannot deeply regret the occasion, as scarcely a day passed without some addition to his information. Hence this edition, which ought to have appeared more than a twelvemonth ago, will be found to have gained in *perfection* what was lost in delay.'

He also tells us that, 'among the other striking advantages of this edition, may first be mentioned the ample account of New Spain and of the Spanish vice-royalties in South America, drawn from the most recent materials, and presenting, it is believed, the greatest novelty of important information that ever appeared in any geographical work.' He observes that, after long reflection and experience, he has found that an exact system of geography, of whatever size, ought to be divided into three parts; one of them allotted to Europe, another to Asia, two thirds of the remaining one to America, and the rest to Africa when fully explored. We must, however, ask, how can he determine *à priori*, before Africa has been completely explored, what portion of a general geographical work ought to be assigned to it when such an event may actually take place? He speaks dogmatically of this 'harmony of proportions,' as he is pleased to call it, without sufficient *data* for his determinations.—Supposing this arrangement to be the only one that is eligible and justly proportionate, he says, 'the reader may hence perceive that it would be

impossible to add another volume to this system of modern geography without destroying the harmony and regularity of the whole edifice.'

Aware that the purchasers of the first edition will probably murmur on finding the compilement now so greatly enlarged, Mr. P. endeavours to convince them and the rest of his readers that, in his long descriptions of the Spanish possessions in America, and in his account of the savages of New Holland, as well as of the manners of the Polynesians or inhabitants of the isles in the Pacific Ocean, all unnecessary prolixity has been carefully avoided:

'In the large and just portions of this new edition, which are dedicated to the vast Spanish possessions in America, the most rich and surprising colonies known to history, it became necessary to give extensive and independent descriptions, as the original works are not only very voluminous, and extremely difficult to be procured, but are wrapt in a language little studied, so that a reference to them for more ample information, frequently admissible in depicting other countries, would here have been nugatory. But even in these lengthened descriptions *any* unnecessary prolixity has been carefully avoided; and it is hoped that no reader will object to the length, which is only caused by the variety and importance of the information, and which, from the confusion of the original materials, it has required the most patient industry to digest and arrange. In some other parts of the work, the descriptions given by voyagers and travellers have been repeated in their own words, not from any momentary *relaxation of indolence*, for it would have been very easy to have thrown them into the historical form, but because the just impressions made by the objects themselves cannot be better represented than in the precise colours of the original painter; not to mention that the uniformity of the geographical style, lamented by Mela, and necessarily occasioned by the recurrence of the same topics, may be greatly relieved by such variations. Descriptions of manners, in particular, are always conveyed with more truth and nature in the words of the original observer; and as this work was charged with some deficiency in that department, by those who did not enter into the spirit of the geographical disquisitions, though more appropriated to the science, several of the extracted parts belong to this division. But however curious and interesting the account of the savages of New Holland, and of the people of Otaheite, the last one of the most remarkable tribes on the globe, while the description of their manners here repeated is, after the account of the Araucans by Molina, one of the most minute and singular, which has ever appeared in any language, yet when more ample materials shall arise, from important discoveries in Australasia and Polynesia, a geographer would abbreviate these articles, and introduce other topics more strictly connected with the science. Meanwhile the account of the manners of the Polynesians will not only gratify the most minute enquirer, but will serve to rectify many errors of Montesquieu, and other eminent writers, with regard to a singular stage of society.'

In his memoir, however, on the recent progress and present state of geography, Mr. Pinkerton seems to be sensible that these very descriptions and accounts are somewhat redundant, and that they may be abridged, or parts of them be altogether omitted, without inconvenience; for, he says, 'he may *venture to foresee* that, by abridging or withdrawing some particular parts, for example, in the accounts of Polynesia and the West Indies, and sometimes by additional annotations, it may not be necessary, even for a century, to add more than one hundred pages.' All this is certainly the language of a bold and adventurous writer on the subject, who fancies himself possessed of a sort of geographical divination. His production has hitherto been in a state of such rapid progression, that in the course of five years it has increased considerably more than one half: but now it has all at once become stationary, and is to remain so for at least a century! The purchasers of this impression, then, need be under no apprehensions of seeing it enlarged a second time, by the author himself.—He states that the new divisions and boundaries, occasioned by a war of the most eventful description, and revolutions of the most astonishing nature, formed one of his reasons for primarily undertaking the work: but, if this were really a good and sufficient motive, it will operate as strongly to the necessity of a third edition, as it originally did to the compilation of the first:—for, since the present edition, which, he says, ought to have appeared more than twelve months ago, was sent to the press, greater alterations in the boundaries of states and kingdoms, more important changes in territorial rights, and a more numerous creation of sovereignties, have taken place, than were produced by the French revolution and concomitant causes prior to the first publication of the book. The truth, however, is that special geography or chorography, let it be ever so correct, must fluctuate with the limits of kingdoms, states, provinces, &c. and such fluctuation affords no decisive reason for publishing a new system, since if it did there would be no end to such compilations. On the other hand, general geography, as more especially relating to the figure and surface of the earth, composed of mountains, hills, plains, vallies, defiles, &c. &c. when once the component parts are thoroughly explored, described, and delineated, remains unchangeable, except so far as rare and partial alterations may be occasioned in it by earthquakes or other operations of nature; and accounts of the inhabitants of different regions, their manners, customs, modes of worship, pursuits, numbers, revenue, commerce, &c. are more within the province of history than of geography strictly so called.

After

After having spoken highly of Mr. Arrowsmith as a map-maker, Mr. Pinkerton observes that 'at present his map of Scotland, from the original great survey of General Roy, excites the public expectation.' This map, however, when presented to the public, cannot possibly be correct; since that, from which it is chiefly copied, is extremely inaccurate. Mr. P., moreover, does not seem to know that the survey of Scotland was not conducted under the late General Roy, but under General Watson, at the desire of the Duke of Cumberland, after the rebellion in 1745; that General Roy was one of the youngest engineers employed on it; that different districts were allotted to them in each Spring; that, when they assembled in Winter to compare their surveys, and could not bring them sometimes to meet by many miles, much altercation often arose, each regarding his own as correct; and that they found it impracticable to form a whole out of them, without a great deal of management and coaxing. In this manner was the plan of Scotland framed. Little or no attention was paid even to the latitudes of places, and none to their longitudes: indeed, the gentlemen employed had no instruments fit for ascertaining the latter. Scotland, however, does not stand alone in this predicament, since we have scarcely a correct map of any country on the surface of the globe. None can be complete for military purposes, let the superficial admeasurements be ever so accurate, unless they have sections in various directions, shewing the relative heights of ground, or tables of references for the same purpose, because these features cannot be represented with precision by any mode of shading or colouring whatsoever. Military geography may, therefore, be regarded as yet in a great measure in its infancy; and Mr. Pinkerton does not treat either of it or of nautical geography, though they form two of the most essential branches of geographical knowlege. He does not, indeed, appear to have even once thought of them; and even if he had introduced them, and discussed them with ability, all that he could have said respecting them would have been of little avail, on account of his maps being on so small a scale as to be despised by the soldier and the navigator. It is the more surprising that he has paid no attention to these two important branches, since he mentions the beneficial effects that have been felt in France, from the frequent publication of good maps at the *Depot de la Guerre* and the *Depot de la Marine*; in the former of which particularly, he says, the exactness of the topography has afforded great advantage to military operations.

We are unable to discover the propriety of prefixing to this work so long an introduction to astronomy, which is indeed more extensive than some entire treatises on the subject. As to its actual merits, we readily allow that it is ably drawn up, (though it contains little that is new,) being the performance of a person of much respectability and considerable eminence as a mathematician. Mr. Pinkerton is apparently of opinion, that a knowlege of astronomy ought to precede the study of geography; whereas we incline to maintain that a knowlege of the general outlines of what is properly called geography, and of the circles of the sphere, ought to precede the study of astronomy. What connection subsists between geography and the rotation of the sun, of the satellites of the Georgium Sidus, the ring of Saturn, &c. &c. &c.? Such an introduction might with much more propriety be prefixed to a cosmographical work, treating of the solar system and the universe.—We cannot but think that the dissertation on the origin of astronomy and geography, though it be ingenious, might also have been omitted without any detriment to the study of the latter:—but the projection of maps, by M. Lacroix, seems to be naturally introduced, as connected with geographical subjects.

Mr. P. arranges geography under four heads or divisions, viz. historical, political, civil, and natural; which method he acknowleges to have been suggested by the *Essai sur l' Histoire de Géographie*, by Robert de Vaugondy. Under the first, he comprises the Names, Extent, Boundaries, Original Population, Progressive Geography, the Historical Epochs, and Antiquities of Countries. In the second, he speaks of the Religion, the Ecclesiastical Geography, the Government, Laws, Actual Population, Colonies, Army, Navy, Revenues, and the Political Importance and Relations of different Countries, respectively. He makes the third comprehend an account of Manners and Customs, Language, Literature, Education, Universities, Cities and Towns, Edifices, Inland Navigation, Manufactures, and Commerce. The fourth treats of the Climate and Seasons, the Face of each Country, its Soil and Agriculture, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, Forests, Botany, Zoology, Mineralogy, Mineral Waters, and Natural Curiosities.

Now it appears to us that an account of the extent and boundaries of any country is naturally connected with a description of the face of it, or of what Mr. P. calls its physiognomy, and ought to be brought under the same head with it: but not even one hundredth part of this bulky performance is employed on descriptions of the different portions of the surface of this terraqueous globe, which form the most

natural

natural and immediate provinces of geography and hydrography, and are by far the most useful for naval and military purposes. As this is the case, the author ought to have paid particular attention not only to the accuracy but to the size of his maps; which, on the contrary, as we have already observed, are drawn on so diminutive a scale as to be almost useless to sailors and soldiers. He has certainly introduced more ample accounts, from books of travels and voyages, of recent discoveries, than are to be found in any other publication of this kind: but his pages are chiefly occupied with materials that belong rather to history than to geography; and it is much easier to compile a work by means of copious extracts respecting the manners and customs of barbarous tribes, and fanciful dissertations on the origin of nations and their first population, than to delineate correctly the face of any country, with the diversity of ground and positions which it presents, and to ascertain with exactness the situation of places, the course of rivers, &c. &c. Yet without having accomplished these matters, no geographical work can be regarded as of much value, because it cannot contribute to the illustration of history, the operations of war, or the purposes of navigation: geography being to historical narrative, in respect of place, what chronology is in point of time.

Mr. Pinkerton does not seem to have even availed himself of the light thrown on the geography and hydrography of different parts of the earth's surface, by antient writers of truth and accuracy. Who, for instance, from Mr. P.'s lame, vague, and defective account of the Hellespont, the Propontis or Sea of Marmora, the Thracian Bosphorus or Streight of Constantinople, the Pontus or Euxine Sea, the Cimmerian Bosphorus or Streight of Caffa, and the Palus Mæotis or Sea of Azof, can learn any thing respecting the dimensions of those lakes, the lengths or breadths of those streights, their depths of water and currents, or the navigation of them? Any person who reads the decription given of them by Polybius, in the fourth book of his history, must allow that historian to be incomparably superior to Mr. Pinkerton both as a geographer and an hydrographer. Mr. P.'s descriptions, which occur under this class, are also frequently incorrect even in cases in which, with proper attention and care, he might have obtained sufficient information to have enabled him to steer clear of the mistakes which he has committed. We shall give a few instances.

In speaking of Cyprus, he asserts, on the authority of Van Egmont, that not one river or stream on the island continues its course in summer: but that it possesses many

ponds, lakes, and fens, which produce a damp and pestiferous air. The great improbability, however, of such a statement would naturally have occurred to him, had he only adverted to the size of the island, and to the circumstance of its being traversed by a chain of Mountains. It is well known that the river of Piscopia, as it is called, not only flows, but drives grist-mills, throughout the year.

Again: the following short and meagre account of our province of New Brunswick, in North America, is almost entirely erroneous:

'The antient province of Nova Scotia was granted by James I. to his secretary Sir Wm. Alexander, afterward Earl of Stirling, and the origin of the title of Baronets of Nova Scotia is well known. It was afterward seized by the French, who seem indeed to have been the first possessors, and by whom it was called Acadie: but it was surrendered to England by the treaty of Utrecht 1713. In 1784, it was divided into two provinces, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In the former there are two considerable bays, and a river of some length, called St. John's; while that of St. Croix divides New Brunswick from the province of Main, belonging to the United States. The river of St. John is navigable for vessels of fifty tons about sixty miles, and for boats about two hundred; the tide flowing about eighty. The fish are salmon, bass, and sturgeon; and the banks, enriched by the annual freshets, are often fertile, level, and covered with large trees. This river affords a common and near route to Quebec. There are many lakes, among which the Grand Lake is 30 miles long, and about nine broad. The great chain of Apalachian mountains passes on the N.W. of this province, probably expiring at the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The capital is Frederick-town on the river St. John, about ninety miles from its estuary. St. Ann's is almost opposite; and there are some other settlements nearer the bay of Fundi, with a fort called Howe. There is a tribe of savages called the Marechites, estimated at 140 fighting men. The chief products are timber and fish.'

We speak on authority which we know to be worthy of reliance when we controvert this statement. Vessels of almost any tonnage can go seventy miles up the river St. John, as far as the mouth of the Oromucto, and vessels of upwards of fifty tons can sail eighty-four miles up it, or four miles above Fredericton; but higher no craft larger than log or birch canoes can be taken, even by means of setting-poles, without the use of ropes and a number of men to drag them along, who must for the greatest part of the time be wading in the water. Fredericton is not ninety miles from the estuary of that river, but eighty; the distance having been measured on the ice. St. Ann's or St. Ann's point, instead of being almost opposite to Fredericton, is in fact the same place, and is only the name formerly given to the point of land

land on which Fredericton stands; and the latter is still called St. Ann's by many of the old inhabitants of that province. The Apalachian mountains do not extend near to the gulph of St. Lawrence.

When treating of Halifax in Nova Scotia, Mr. P. makes its population at least three times as great as it actually is. He asserts also that the town is entrenched, with forts of timber: but this is a great mistake, since it has no entrenchment round it. The soil in that province, he adds, is generally thin and light, though fertile, on the banks of the rivers, in grass, hemp, and flax. Grass and flax certainly grow with luxuriance on the banks of its rivers, and on other parts of it: but scarcely any hemp has yet been raised either in Nova Scotia or New Brunswick, though instructions relative to the cultivation of it were sent from this country to the governors of those provinces, who have repeatedly called to that object the attention of their respective houses of assembly. The lands in both, as well as in the two Canadas, are naturally very fit for its growth and culture; and in the latter it is known to have succeeded.

From Pennant's Arctic Geography, Mr. Pinkerton asserts that the tides in the Bay of Fundy force themselves into the great creeks with a bore, or head, from fifty to seventy two feet high, and with amazing rapidity. The tides undoubtedly run very rapidly into different creeks and rivers that communicate with that bay, and particularly into the Petcudiack and the Hebert: but, as its navigation is now tolerably familiar to many of our seamen, better information on this subject was unquestionably within the author's reach. The height of the head of water, commonly called the *Bore* by the inhabitants, occasioned by the tides running from this bay into the creeks and rivers with great rapidity, is in fact only from two to four feet. At the head of the bay, near Fort Cumberland, or *Beau Sejour*, the spring tides rise to the height of nearly sixty feet perpendicular, which is attributable to their flowing gradually up an extensive inclined plane. At Bay Verte in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, only twelve miles distant from Fort Cumberland, they do not rise more than from four to six feet: at the mouth of the river St. John, where the city of that name stands, the highest tides do not rise above 28 feet perpendicularly; and the farther they proceed up the Bay of Fundy, the bottom of which is a sort of inclined plane, the higher they naturally rise before their force is exhausted. Although this bay is daily traversed by the inhabitants of the adjoining provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the navigation of it is well known by them to be on the whole very safe and commodious, it is im-

possible to form any conception of either, from what the present geographer in this his *complete system of geography* says of it. His scanty observations respecting it are indeed chiefly calculated to mislead. He does not even give the latitude and longitude of the city of St. John, from which most of the white-pine masts, yards, and bowsprits for the supply of our navy are exported; nor of Annapolis on the other side of the bay, and nearly opposite; nor of Fredericton, the seat of government in New Brunswick. Neither does he give an useful description of any harbour in that bay, not even of that of Halifax itself.

When we follow the author into the Canadas, we find similar errors and omissions. He makes the distance between Quebec and Montreal 30 miles less than it is in reality. He places Kingston near the lake of a thousand islands, although it is well known that the uppermost of the *mille isles* is situated at least twenty-five miles below that town. His descriptions of Lakes Superior, Huron, and Michigan, are not only at variance with the map in which he lays them down, but are also contradictory and inconsistent: for in p. 20. Vol. iii. he says, 'there are several lakes of so great a size, that they deserve to be distinguished by the name of seas, particularly Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, which constitute one piece of water about 350 miles in length;'—and in p. 23. he speaks of them in these words: 'The Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, form one large inland sea, which might be called the sea of Canada or that of Huron. This expansion of water, as already mentioned, is about 350 miles in length and more than 100 at its greatest breadth: according to the French charts, that part of this sea, which is called *Lake Superior*, is not less than 1500 miles in circumference.'—'This part of the sea of Canada opens into the Lake *Huron* by the straits of St. Mary, about 40 in length, and in some places only one or two miles in breadth. The circumference of that part called Lake *Huron* is said to be about 1000 miles. Another short strait leads into the third Lake called *Michigan*, also navigable for ships of any burthen.'—Here, then, he first speaks of these Lakes as three inland seas; and then he considers them as one, though they are separated by narrow straits of considerable length. He might as well represent the Sea of Marmora, the Euxine, and that of Azof, as one; or the Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, Sinclair, Erie, and Ontario, as forming altogether one inland sea.—He observes that the strait of St. Mary is in some places only one or two miles broad: but as laid down by him in the map it is at least 30.—He tells us that the length of the expansion of water formed by these three great

Lakes

Lakes is about 350 miles, and that its greatest breadth is somewhat more than 100. Now how is it possible for a sheet of water only 350 miles long, and about 100 broad, to furnish a circuit of 2500 miles; which, according to his own statement, is formed by Lakes Superior and Huron taken together, exclusive of Lake Michigan? It is astonishing that this impossibility did not occur to him. Besides, by his own map, the greatest breadth of Lake Superior is upwards of 200 miles; and taken together with Lake Huron, it occupies from east to west, in the latitude of about 46°, (which is far, however, from being the direction of their greatest length taken conjointly,) upwards of 10°.

We could point out many more deficiencies and inaccuracies if our limits permitted. The warmest admirers of the author, as a geographer, must admit that he is a lame and uninformed hydrographer; and of one circumstance we cannot avoid taking notice, viz. that at the beginning of the work he does not give any definitions of either a geographical or an hydrographical nature.

A great portion of these volumes being composed of extracts from different writers, the language is of course various and diversified. The author's own style is on the whole dignified, though not always ~~accurate~~ correct; and, by chusing that of Mr. Gibbon for his model, he has rendered it in many places too frothy and figurative for geographical description; the chief excellence of which consists in accuracy, precision, and perspicuity. We shall give one short specimen of it:

'To the north of Europe is the Arctic ocean, the dismal and solitary reservoir of myriads of miles of ice, the very skirts of which, floating in enormous mountains, crowned with brilliant pinnacles of every hue, delight the eye and appal the heart of the mariner. Yet this enormous waste is, in the hand of Providence, a fertile field of provisions for the human race. Here the vast battalions of herrings seem to seek a refuge from numerous foes, and to breed their millions in security. About the middle of winter, emerging from their retreat, they spread in two divisions, one towards the west, which covers the shores of America, as far as the Chesapeak and Carolina; while a third more minute squadron passes the streight between Asia and America, and visits the coasts of Kamschatka. The most memorable division reaches Iceland about the beginning of March, in a close phalanx of surprising depth, and such extent, that the surface is supposed to equal the dimensions of Great Britain and Ireland. They are however subdivided into numberless columns of five or six miles in length, and three or four in breadth, followed by numerous sea fowl, and perceivable by the rippling of the water, and a brilliant reflexion like that of a rainbow. In April or May the vanguard of those allotted to the British dominions reaches Shetland, and the grand body arrives in June; towards

wards the end of which month, and through that of July, they are in the greatest perfection, a circumstance well known to the Dutch fishers, who then caught that superior sort which formed the grand source of the wealth of the United Provinces. From Shetland one division proceeds towards the east, as far as Yarmouth, where they appear in October. The other brigade passes to the west, along both shores of Ireland. A few stragglers are found at irregular periods, having proceeded beyond their powers of return; but it is generally credited, that millions regain the Arctic Ocean, and deposit their spawn about the month of October.'

Mr. P.'s quotation from Pomponius Mela clearly proves it to have been the opinion of that author, that rhetorical flourish and flowery ornamented composition were unsuitable to geographical description.

Though the Index is said to be 'revised, enlarged, and improved,' it is still far from complete or even accurate. We look in vain for *Asia Minor*, *Cossier*, and *Lampedosa*: which latter is also not marked in the map of the Mediterranean Sea, though it has lately been so much an object of discussion.

Glen.
but see p. 289.

ART. IX. *Hints to the Public, and the Legislature, on the Nature and Effect of Evangelical Preaching.* By a Barrister.* Part I. 8vo. pp. 147. 3s. 6d. stitched. Johnson. 1808.

SUBSTITUTIONS for virtue have been the fashion in all ages, and under all systems of religion. The Pagans were very ready to believe that sacrifices, processions, and splendid festivals, were more acceptable to their Deities than practical morality; and when we advert to the history of their Pantheon, we cannot be surprised at the features and quality of their idolatry. The Jews, notwithstanding the sublime representations afforded them of the holiness of Jehovah, and the repeated assurances which they received respecting the superior importance of moral obedience, were incessantly disposed to place their chief dependence on the ceremonials of their religion; to bring the offering of a sacrifical victim instead of a contrite heart; and to pay tithes of mint, annice, and cummin, while they neglected "the weightier matters of the law." Even since the revelation of the Gospel, which is declared to be *a doctrine according to godliness*, the same kind of delusion has prevailed. Among the Papists, confessions, penances, indulgences, and absolutions, have served to strew poppies over the guilty conscience; and among Protestants, who have not scrupled to laugh at what they have termed the mummery of the Catholic religion, notions equally absurd and injurious to the cause of sound morals have been maintained and

* said to be Mr. Sedgwick.

and propagated with astonishing zeal. Personal righteousness is now vilified by many as a quality which cannot enter into the composition of an acceptable Being in the sight of God; and those exhortations to virtue, and to a *patient continuance in well doing*, which are so frequent in the Gospel, are too often proscribed as a species of admonition which ought not to be tolerated by a Christian audience.

A party has arisen among us, calling themselves *Evangelical Preachers*, who have undertaken to *evangelize* the world, and to preach peace and salvation to sinners in a very singular strain. Their doctrine, being very palatable to weak and sinful creatures, has obtained the most flattering success; and emboldened by increasing numbers, these orators protrude their sentiments with a sort of apostolic authority. It is high time that their pretensions should be examined, that their whole system should be analized, and that their prominent tenets should be closely compared with the word of God. The author before us has therefore commendably employed himself in endeavouring to rouse the sensible part of the public to a consideration of the mischiefs which, he apprehends, the cause of morality and practical religion is sustaining from the labours of these Evangelical Preachers; and, by the evidence which is here produced, he makes out (to use the language of his profession) *a very strong case against them.* In this warfare, he does not deal in generalities nor fight with shadows: but he names the writers whose tenets he combats, quotes the passages from their works which have excited his indignant animadversions, and, like an able disputant, investigates the accuracy of those terms and expressions which are used to convey the fashionable orthodoxy of the present age. We regard the subject as in the highest degree important; and though we would not be so uncharitable nor so unjust as to question the goodness of the motive of these Evangelical Divines, we are of opinion with this Barrister that their language is very indiscreet, that it does not harmonize with the tenor of the Gospel, and that *primâ facie* it tends to subvert among the common people, all the fundamental principles of morality and practical religion. If such an opinion be well founded, the progress of this evangelical sect is to be deplored as a public evil, and to be enumerated among our national misfortunes. Perhaps we should not call the attention of the Legislature to it precisely in the mode to which this Barrister is inclined: but the growth of this sect ought to put all the sensible ministers of the National Church *on the alert*, and should dispose them to unite in recommending a revisal of the book of common

prayer,

prayer, and of our translation of the Scriptures, in order that the whole may be rendered more homogeneous than it is in its present state. Some clergymen have expressed themselves very plainly on the expediency of such a measure; well knowing that, though the general tenor of the Liturgy is in accordance with the language of the Gospel, and inculcates the necessity of good works, a few expressions unluckily occur which seem to imply that good works are of *no* importance and estimation; and that we "receive the remission of our sins, and are made partakers of the kingdom of heaven," *entirely* on another ground*.

Our pages have often intimated that the meaning of the terms *self-righteousness* and *imputed righteousness* has not been sufficiently defined. Let religionists ask themselves, can the quality of righteousness be predicated of any subject or substance in which it does not reside? If it cannot, then every Being who is righteous must be self-righteous. Again, is righteousness a transferable quality; if we say no, is it not as absurd to speak of its being imputed to a person entirely vicious, as it is to talk of the property of heat being imputed to ice, or that of solidity to a vacuum? By asking these questions, we conceive that we do not invalidate the doctrine of *grace in Christ*; for mankind may receive benefits from the merits and the righteousness of Christ, without the actual transfer of guilt to innocence on the one hand, or of innocence to guilt on the other. The Evangelical Preachers, having never (as it should seem) ascertained the exact import of these words, to the use of which they are so very partial, have fallen, in our estimation, into a gross mistake, which is the root and origin of their misconceptions. We hope that the publication now before us will contribute to open their eyes; and as we are desirous of giving effect to the seasonable hints which it contains, we notice it more at length than the size of the pamphlet might seem to require.

Against these Evangelical Preachers, as we have already intimated, the Barrister prefers his indictment in a very regular way, and argues every point of the case with great energy. He refers to the writings of those divines from whom he makes his quotations, and marks those expressions which he conceives to be highly objectionable. In the first place, certain passages are extracted from a publication by Dr. Hawker, in which the preacher, admitting the *utter inability of man to*

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* How does the passage to which we allude accord with the introductory sentence, "when the wicked man turneth," &c.?

do

do any good, tells his congregation that he shall forbear to 'exhort them to do it,' on which the following comments are made:

'If the *preacher* cannot help us, and we cannot help *ourselves*, for what use are churches erected at all?—These Calvinistic teachers do well to suppress, as far as they are able, the exercise of *reason*; thus far the public have cause to be thankful, for certainly their *evangelical* premises lead to very dangerous conclusions.

"Why stand ye here all the day idle?" said the lord of the vineyard; they said unto him, "Because no man hath hired us." Surely had they been brought up under an *evangelical* teacher, they would have made a very different reply.—"Because we have no *natural power to work*," would have been their answer; "to hire us would be useless, for having no power to help *ourselves*, still less have we a power to help *others*."—But in this beautiful parable, our SAVIOUR teaches us an important *moral* truth which this *helpless* order of sinners would do well to remember—that he did not live and die to leave them an EXAMPLE they were unable to follow, nor would have commanded any man to TAKE UP his cross, if he had not strength to support it.'

The phrase in the Confession, "*there is no health in us*," does not imply a total incapacity for doing the will of God, but a diseased or vitiated state. The patient's need of a physician, which that expression declares, does not indicate the total destruction of all the powers and energies of the system. We may be greatly out of health both physically and morally, and yet be capable of vigorously exerting ourselves towards our recovery. What must, in short, be the consequence if we were not? Could that be a duty which it was utterly impossible for us to perform? Do not these preachers, therefore, in fact, deny the existence of all moral obligation? for 'it is clear, (as the Barrister says,) that unless we have a power to obey, the duty of obedience cannot exist.' Knowing, however, that this kind of close logic will be stigmatized as '*carnal* reason,' he ventures to tell these gentlemen that 'this phrase is utter nonsense, and that we might as well talk, only that our ears are not accustomed to it, of *crooked* straitness or *diseased* health. The phrase *carnal* reason is just as contradictory, and therefore just as absurd.'

When Dr. Hawker advances to the display of the freedom and sovereignty of grace, he makes his hearers and readers easy on the score of duty; for he tells them that there is not a *word* or *syllable* about duties and obligations; and that in the new covenant "there are neither *ifs* nor *buts*: No conditions, nor terms." Such language may be called *good news to sinners*: but, as this Barrister very properly remarks,

'It would be well if these reverend gentlemen would explain to the world what it is they mean, when they declare the gospel to be—"a co-

" a COVENANT *of grace*, WITHOUT TERMS and WITHOUT CONDITIONS,"—since it is the very essence of a *covenant* of every kind, that it should contain *conditions*, on the performance of which its validity depends.—It is of great importance that this matter should be rightly understood, since it is most essential that in this town of London, where theft, adultery, robbery, murder, fraud, and every species of vice abound—that it should not be publicly proclaimed, and privately taught, that the *abstaining from all this* MAKES NO PART OF THAT COVENANT WHICH THE GOSPEL CONTAINS; which must be true if it is a covenant WITHOUT TERMS OR CONDITIONS. It would be well at least for the sake of society, if these *faithful preachers* would not persuade the multitude wholly to throw aside that covenant contained in the gospel of the New Testament, which HAS terms and conditions, and which teaches us that the only way to find acceptance with God, is by doing his will—A covenant the terms of which are thus distinctly declared—IF YE WOULD ENTER INTO LIFE, KEEP THE COMMANDMETNS—A covenant, the CONDITION of which our Saviour has himself most solemnly proclaimed, and with equal solemnity, has denounced the awful consequences attending the breach of it, EXCEPT ye repent, ye *shall* ALL likewise PERISH.'

Another divine of the same school (see Sermons by Rev. E. Cooper) tells us that "God justifies the sinner freely, and imputes to him *righteousness without works*:" but is not this expression a contradiction in terms? Might not the preacher, with equal accuracy, have talked of solidity without length, breadth, and thickness?

Mr. R. Hill comes in for a share of attention from the Barrister, who reprobates the "*Village Dialogues*" of this reverend gentleman as tending to make 'the rising generation of ignorant and dissolute rustics laugh at what he terms *the whitewash of morality*.' Exhortations to practical virtue seem to be proscribed by this sect as the worst species of heresy:

'The preacher of the duties of Christianity—the better to degrade him in the opinion of the common people,—is represented in these Dialogues under the flimsy name of TAPLASH*, (for those who have to deal with the multitude know well that a name goes a great way,) his character is made to associate with it the idea of all that is offensive and absurd.—Then as to his sermons, "the ingredients of all his compositions," (says this evangelical accuser,) "seemed to be nothing better than flimsy declamations and religious compliments—he would be talking of the *reward* we were to receive from the fair hand of our *virtuous conduct*"—Thus the ignorant are taught in pretty plain terms and by a very plain inference that our SAVIOUR'S SERMON on the Mount was mere flimsy declamation,—"Blessed are the poor in spirit, for *their's* is the kingdom of God. Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth. Blessed are they that hunger and thirst

* Vapid poor small beer.

after

after righteousness, for they shall be filled." Thus said the Son of God,—and thus does he stand involved in the accusation—He too we see—for his words are before us,—he too would be talking of the *reward we were to receive* from the hand of our *virtuous conduct*. Thus is the Saviour himself held up to derision, who as a MORAL PREACHER had no equal, but who, if the new evangelical host can help it, shall have no imitators.'

To expose the folly of these declaimers against moral exhortation, the following *reductio ad absurdum* is framed:

'The religion of the New Testament, according to the evangelical preacher, is the religion of PAGANISM, for the religion of the New Testament most earnestly puts us upon *doing something*, in order to recommend ourselves to God; its language is "This do, and thou shalt live;" it therefore has not that *distinguishing peculiarity* which according to him exclusively denotes the religion of Christ,—and it sets forth conditions to be performed by ourselves, which *that religion* we are told does not.—It follows therefore that the religion of the New Testament is not the true religion of Jesus Christ.'

As the professors of the new divinity are incessantly appealing to our Saviour's account of the Pharisee in Luke xviii. for the purpose of stigmatizing *self-righteousness*, the Barrister gently hints to them that this parable was not spoken to the truly righteous, who trusted in their good works for acceptance, but "to certain who *trusted* in themselves *that they were* righteous," or to persons who laboured under *self-delusion*.—Poor Job's crime is stated by Mr. R. Hill, in his "Village Dialogues," to be *self-righteousness*: but while Mr. H. condemns Job for his *self-righteousness*, might not Mr. H. himself with equal propriety be reprobated for his *self-faith*, if we may be permitted to add a new term to the old jargon? for we cannot perceive why one virtuous or commendable exercise of the mind should fall under disgrace rather than another.

'What, after all, is the meaning of this term *self-righteous*, which is canted about from mouth to mouth, and from sermon to sermon, with such a tone of bitter condemnation? Do those who adopt it one after another, pause to enquire what they mean by it?—Does not righteousness consist in the practice of those duties which the gospel enjoins, and abstaining from those crimes which the gospel condemns? If so, must not each individual *himself* practise that which is right, and refrain from that which is wrong?—Can *another* tell truth *for* a liar, or be honest *for* a housebreaker?—Can the licentious be pure *by substitute* or the profane be devout *by deputy*?—Can another be upright *for* the swindler, or chaste *for* the seducer?—Must not every bad man leave off *his own* evil courses, and must he not *himself* repent and reform?—Is it not expressly declared that it is "*he that doeth* righteousness, that is righteous."

Every reader who can distinguish sense from nonsense must subscribe to the accuracy of this representation, and must lament that such pains are taken by men who profess to preach the Gospel, to degrade moral duties in the estimation of the common people; who are daily told that *self-righteousness* is *filthy rags.*

It will perhaps be said that the Barrister is too severe against the preachers whom he designates as 'evangelical anti-moralists,' and that he has not exhibited the whole of their creed, the bottom of which is designed to neutralize the poison that swims at the top: but, since the thoughtless and vicious multitude, to whom the above-mentioned doctrine is preached, and by whom it is swallowed with avidity, more frequently skim the top than dive to the bottom, it may justly be represented as extremely dangerous. The whole system, in our judgment, is founded on misconception and misapprehension, and must be discarded by those who have learned to affix precise ideas to words, or know how to reason with correctness.

Moy.

Art. X. *Orders in Council, or an Examination of the Justice, Legality, and Policy of the New System of Commercial Regulations;* with an Appendix of State Papers, Statutes, and Authorities. 8vo. pp. 114. 4s. Longman and Co. 1808.

Art. XI. *An Inquiry into the Causes and Consequences of the Orders in Council;* and an Examination of the Conduct of Great Britain towards the Neutral Commerce of America. By Alexander Baring, Esq., M.P. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 179. 4s. Richardson. 1808.

We unite in one article our consideration of these important pamphlets, because by their subjects they very naturally and aptly combine; and together they present a complete view of the objections to which our late Orders of Council are exposed. The anonymous writer of the first joins to an acquaintance with the principles and operations of commerce, the knowlege of a professor of public law and a municipal lawyer; while to a similar intimacy with the effects of commerce, the latter author adds the precious advantage of experience and practice in its concerns. From the former of these tracts, the reader will learn the substance of the remarkable edicts in question, the qualities of their structure, their incongruity with the rules of the law of nations and with those of our own municipal code, and will also find in it very important observations on their impolicy and inexpediency: but

but it is to the latter of these productions that he will be most indebted on this score.

The opposition of these Orders to the law of nations has been admitted by some of their advocates; who have sought to repel the objection founded on that ground, by denying the obligations of the law of nations in the present circumstances of the world: alleging that this law owes its authority to compact, and that, the compact having been dissolved or disregarded by the parties interested in it, all are now at liberty to act as they shall judge proper. This doctrine is said to have been laid down in a certain great assembly, by the highest authority in these matters.—The law of nations, however, we conceive to mean the rules of justice, as regulating the conduct of nations in their intercourse with each other; and which are the same rules of justice with those by which individuals are required to govern their conduct in society. If it be not denied that this code is less obligatory on nations than on individuals, (and we are not aware that such denial can be maintained,) it will follow from the reasoning above quoted that morality itself is dependent on compact; and that it is not of immutable and eternal obligation, as had been universally held in this country down to the present period, and in support of which tenet we have so many learned and ingenious productions, that are *chefs d'œuvre* of the human mind. If such a notion of the law of nations being obligatory only to this limited extent be tenable, morality is not binding on an individual in a state of nature any longer than it continues to be observed by those among whom he lives; so that, if they commit extortions, rapes, and murders, he is justified in doing the same. This is again to set up Hobbes, and to sweep away from our shelves the Cumberlands, Cudworths, Clarkes, Prices, and Butlers. If such, however, be the doctrine on mere moral grounds, we are at a loss to conceive how it can be justified on those of religion; an observation which has the more weight, inasmuch as the authors and supporters of those Orders claim to be christians *par eminence*, being of the class which designates itself as the *evangelical*: though, indeed, as we have recently shewn, *morality* and *good works* are too often contemned and discarded by that sect*. We have lately declared ourselves sticklers for commerce; and we feel as little disposed to sacrifice *old morality*, from complaisance to the delusions of the day: for we are so old fashioned as to maintain that there never can exist a state of things, as long as empires and individuals themselves exist, in

* See Art. IX. of this Review.

which the rules of justice will not be binding on the one and the other. Of the many grave questions which this doctrine suggests, it does not fall within our province on an occasion like the present to attempt the elucidation.

In this war of edicts between the French ruler and the present British ministers, it is undeniable that the former was the aggressor, and that, as acting against him, the latter are justified in proceeding to the utmost extent of retaliation: but, while they aim their blows at him, they should be careful that the injury which they inflict does not fall on themselves, or rather on their country. As opposed to him, they had an undoubted right of constraing rigorously the absurd but ambiguous decree of November 1806, but here that right ended. They, however, disdained to confine themselves within any such limits; and in their scheme of retaliation, their vengeance falls lightly on the enemy, while it is principally heaped on the heads of neutrals, who were no parties to the aggression. It is contended, moreover, by the authors of the orders in council, that they find in the order of the 7th of February 1807, issued under our late government, 'an ægis which completely protects them from all attacks, at least from all attacks on the part of those who framed that decree.' In that Order, a power was certainly reserved, which goes partially to the extent of that which has been called forth by the latter Orders; and which the then ministers claimed the liberty of exerting in case that neutrals should acquiesce in the French decree according to its more unfavourable interpretation: but the question now is, had neutrals so acquiesced previously to the issue of the recent orders? If this fact, of which we have seen no satisfactory proof, were established, then would ministers be justified to the extent of declaring France and the countries subject to it in a state of blockade: but what do we find in the order of the 7th Feburary, 1807, which justifies or in the least countenances that complicated interference in the concerns of neutrals, and the subjecting their trade to licenses and taxes, which is not less an invasion of the sovereignty of such states than an infringement of the antient constitutional rights of British subjects? So gross is this outrage on neutral nations, that Bonaparte, covered as he is with delinquencies of this kind, thinks that he may reproach our ministers with the act.

If a neutral has cause for complaining of these orders, the anonymous *Examiner* of them makes it appear, as we have just observed, that they are not less derogatory to the most precious and sacred rights of British subjects. The researches of this author prove that royal proclamations can in no degree

affect imports and exports. Lord Hardwicke, who was equally a constitutional and a profound lawyer, could not be induced by even the apprehensions of a famine to issue a proclamation for regulating the corn-trade. These Orders, however, it is here abundantly proved, are not only at wide variance with our antient fundamental laws, but are in direct violation of modern statutes and the latest practice. If we acquit their reputed framer of wilful and intentional blame in this respect, it is only because we are aware that he is likely to be better acquainted with the rules of the Cockpit, with the shifting maxims of Doctor's Commons, and with colonial ordinances, than with those antient fundamental laws, which form the bulwarks of our liberties. For drawing public attention to these sacred enactments, and to the late departure from them, we consider the author of the present *Examination* as intitled to general acknowlegement. His able sketch of them shews, on the part of our simple ancestors, a vigilant regard to the public interests, which must put to the blush the negligence of their boastful descendants, in having permitted abuses to grow up that must excite both shame and alarm in the minds of all considerate men.

After having given the substance of the Orders, and illustrated their operation by the supposed case of an American vessel, the writer adds:

'This illustration comprehends the only material features of the new system, viz. its forcing all the neutral commerce to run through the ports of the United Kingdom; its giving the English Government a command of the supply of cotton, and some smaller articles, as brandies, wines, European snuff, and tobacco; and its stopping the exportation of all enemy's West India produce, except cotton, cochineal, and Indigo, either to this country or to any restricted part of Europe. It is upon these points that the policy of the measure must be tried.'

The privations to which this plan must reduce the enemy are expected by its authors to compel him to sue for peace: an idea which is here thus refuted and ridiculed:

'The French have borne every species of public and private calamity for nearly eighteen years; they have passed through all the vicissitudes of revolution, from anarchy to despotism; they have tasted only of war, with its whole train of evils, of which privations have been the smallest; they have suffered the most unsparing conscription, augmented in rigour as the service of the army became more irksome and dangerous; to all this they have submitted in quiet, with rallying points for emigration in the neighbouring nations, and for rebellion in the heart of their own country. No dangers, no calamities, no private distresses, not even the conscription itself, has

ever extorted a murmur of discontent—and we now expect insurrections to break out as soon as coffee and sugar shall become scarce at Paris, or the army shall find tobacco growing dear! The conscription is at an end, or is become only holiday work; the armies go out not to fight but to revel in triumph, and to amuse themselves with foreign travel; but grocery and snuff are advancing in price, and let Bonaparte look to it! If he does not speedily make peace on our terms, restore the Bourbons, and give up Belgium, his earthly course is run!—This is the argument.'

As it must be mournfully admitted that the public has lately shewn a relish for delusion, the author apologizes for submitting to it representations that are founded on liberal and enlightened views: but we are sure that at least those who patronize our labours will be gratified by a perusal of the passage which is thus introduced:

'If America is in truth our best customer; if she possesses what we require, and wants what we have to export; if the market which she thus furnishes is not only beyond all others extensive, but must grow with the rapid growth of her resources, and continually accelerate the progress of our own; if from language, laws, government, the trade with her inhabitants is next to a home, or colonial commerce the most convenient and beneficial that we can carry on; if in short, America is, as it were, made for us, and we for her—can any but the veriest driveller in political science, doubt for a moment that her gains are our gains; that we are sufferers by her losses; that the less she trades with other nations, the less she will trade with ourselves; and that to confine her foreign commerce to her trade with England, would be to diminish, if not to destroy this trade also. Next to our own territory and that of our foreign settlements, were we as wise as we are brave, we should wish well to the American states. The ruin of the great home and colonial market alone could injure us more than the ruin of the American commerce; and the impolicy of fettering that commerce, if it were practicable, would be exceeded only by the folly which all the maritime nations in Europe have sooner or later lamented—the folly of stunting, by monopolies, the traffic of their foreign settlements.'

We fear that the following description of the national feeling in regard to America is in most of its parts but too correct:

'Hatred of America seems a prevailing sentiment in this country. Whether it be that they have no crown and nobility, and are on this account not quite a *genteel* power—or that their manners are less polished than our own—or that we grudge their independence, and hanker after our old monopoly of their trade—or that they closely resemble us in language, character, and laws—or, finally, that it is more our interest to live well with them than with any other nation in the world—the fact is undeniable, that the bulk of the people would fain be at war with them, and those who are a little wiser would never rest till they make them go to war with France. The

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former wish is plainly the worst of the two; but to desire that America should give up her neutrality is not a great deal wiser. How can she assist us, or, to use the modish phrase, make common cause with us, against France, half so effectually as by continuing to trade with both, while both are fighting together, and thus preserve our commerce, to whom commerce is so much more essential than to the enemy? There is, in truth, only one line of conduct, which America can adopt more hurtful to us, than that of taking part with us; and this is taking part with our enemy. If any measures of ours can ensure such a misfortune, the good people of these realms may rest satisfied that the late Orders in Council will answer the purpose.'

The circulation of the latter * of the tracts before us shews, however, that, if the British public no longer possesses energy and virtue sufficient to follow reason, it will at least respectfully listen to her councils. Amid all the propensity to deception which we regard as one of the most unfavourable features of the age, and in despite of the frowns of power or the whispers of influence, Mr. Baring's pamphlet has been much read, studied, and admired; although the object of it is to shew that the favourite measures of the day have originated in partial views, are grossly unjust with regard to neutrals, and highly mischievous with reference to ourselves. It is in vain that civilians applaud and extol,—the sentence of the merchant has stamped their character and settled their doom. Their advocates, on a late occasion, deprecated opposition to them on the alleged ground of the danger of any interference with government in state measures; while they seemed anxious to avow that they did not consider them as wise, and that they principally endured them because they were inefficient. We respect the civilians in their own limited sphere, but we protest against any claims on their part to authority in questions of commercial policy; and we feel ourselves confirmed in this opinion, when we recollect that the head of the fraternity, whose learning, taste, and accomplishments we agree with all competent judges in admiring, has countenanced and panegyrized the lame and shallow sophisms of Mr. Spence on the subject of foreign commerce. Whoever wishes to be made fully acquainted with the importance of our trade with America, the benefits which we derive from it, the evils which the loss of it would produce, and the degree in which it is affected by the late edicts,—let him peruse these pages.

Three years ago, appeared a pamphlet intitled *War in Disguise, or the Frauds of Neutral Flags*; 'the eloquence of

* The former has also reached a 2d edit. which contains five additional state documents in the Appendix.

which, (says Mr. Baring,) employed on materials partially sound and generally plausible, combined with the manly and patriotic spirit which it breathes, established the author's opinions in the mind of the public at large, and with many statesmen, of all political parties.' These qualities in that performance, combined with our incompetence to dispute its alleged facts, led us, on a supposition of those facts being correct, to speak in favourable terms of its reasoning and its purport: but it is here contended that its brilliancy was a mere *ignis fatuus*, the erroneous views of its author in regard to commerce are exposed, his facts are overturned, and in respect to the law the merchant completely triumphs over the advocate *. The rule of the war 1756 is shewn to be no more a part of the law of nations, than the licences and taxations imposed on neutrals by the new code. It was set up only during one war; and Lord Chatham, its great supporter, justified it solely on the ground of necessity. Mr. Baring states the circumstances which induced neutrals at the time to submit to it. In the contest with America, our Government never attempted to assert it; and though it was proclaimed at the commencement of the revolutionary war, it was revoked in the course of a few months, and a compensation of damages was allotted to the suffering parties for all the seizures which had been made while it was in force. In the Russian treaty, it is virtually renounced by the adoption of a different and contrary rule.—Thus stands, then, this famed law, which it was the main object of "War in Disguise" to revive and assert.

On the subject of the American discontents, Mr. Baring is equally fair and successful; and he proves to demonstration that they have arisen from provocation on the part of this country, as bitter and irritating as ever was suffered by one state from another. The provocation was nothing less than a sudden general sweeping, by the cruizers of this country, of all American vessels which were sailing to France and its dependencies in the course of their accustomed allowed trade, in the year 1805, without any previous proclamation or notice. This violent proceeding arose out of a new principle of decision, which was then for the first time adopted in our supreme prize court; and thus were numbers of American individuals ruined in their fortunes, who had embarked their property in these adventures on the faith of our tribunals proceeding on fixed principles of decision. The sentence was that of the Council, on an appeal from the Admiralty Court.

* A gentleman of the legal profession is known to have been the writer of that pamphlet.

Mr. Baring's

Mr. Baring's production claims attention on account not only of the information and advice which it imparts on a matter of infinite importance, but of the valuable statements of the doctrines of political economy which occur in it, and of which the most eminent professors of the science might well be proud; while it occasionally descends into details which can be acquired only in the active pursuits of merchandise. It is peculiarly well adapted to form men to just and liberal views of our commercial interests; and though the author pleads for America against British injustice, numerous passages exhibit him in the character of a zealous advocate for the interests of his own country, of which he has so complete a knowlege.

If the maxim laid down by Mr. B. in his opening had been adopted by Government, we should never have heard of the famed Orders in council:

'My object in entering into this detail of the proceedings of the merchants, and of the conduct of different Administrations, which have at last ended in these important changes, is to shew that, under whatever pretences they are recommended to popularity, they are purely the result of commercial calculation. The West India planter and merchant, the ship owner, the manufacturer for, and trader with, America, all contribute largely to the general mass from which our resources are derived; while each promotes with that honest zeal, which is the best means of general prosperity—his separate interests. But the public is in the situation of a general merchant, who has the whole of these various branches of commerce united in him. He endeavours by his skill to improve them equally; but when the interests of any of them clash, he determines, by a comparative estimate, which must be sacrificed. Such has most erroneously been considered to be the case in the present instance, and after long hesitation, that of America has been devoted. It is the correctness of this calculation to which I wish to call the attention of the public; and I think I shall be able to shew, not only that no sacrifice was called for, but that the victim has been most injudiciously selected.'

We wish that it were in our power to insert the statements which incontestibly prove, in opposition to the assertions of "*War in Disguise,*" that the commerce of America with the colonies of the enemy is conducted *bona fide*.—The following observation in regard to the rule of 1756 is worthy of the manly sense and candid mind of the author:

'If we had maintained and defended this doctrine boldly and fairly against all nations, good arguments in favour of it could not at least be wanting; but when we have uniformly relaxed it, and indeed forborne to claim it, can it be consistent, either with magnanimity or good policy, to bring it forward now, merely because the only remaining

maining neutral has a defenceless commerce? If such cowardly injustice is to be one of our resources in these trying times, when elevation of sentiment and of national character is more than ever wanted, the means and strength of this powerful empire are indeed strangely misunderstood.'

The author gives this account of the decision which occasioned the first ill blood between America and this country:

'The important change in our conduct alluded to was introduced by the decision of the Lords of Appeal on the case of the cargo of the American ship Essex, at the Cockpit, in May 1805. The Admiralty Court had before decided what was or was not a continuation of the first voyage by the general complexion of the evidence, and that when goods had been made part of the common stock of America by a fair importation, and *the payment of duties*, they might be re exported from thence to any part of the world.

'The Court of Appeal, though no reason was assigned for the condemnation in this case, was understood to have established the illegality of the trade, founded on a discovery, now made for the first time, that the duties on the cargo imported had not been actually paid *in money*, but by a bond of the importer *.

'This decision, although the distinction made was not calculated to catch the common eye, was well known to embrace the whole foreign trade of America, excepting that in her own produce. It circulated rapidly among our cruizers and privateers, and in the course of a fortnight the seas were cleared of every American ship they could find, which now crowded our ports for trial; and our West India merchants were gratified by neutral insurances, and freights, being at least doubled by this ingenious discovery.

'As this decision laid the foundation of all the complaints of America, of our vexatious measures against her trade, as it introduced a totally new line of conduct towards it, and as that change produced the Non-importation Act on her side, at which we affect so much indignation, a more minute examination of it is necessary for my purpose.'

He then shews the injustice of the decision, as well as its inconsistency with all preceding sentences in the Admiralty Court; and he farther adds:

'Nor was the injury to the Americans confined to the application of these new and vexatious principles; for our privateers and cruizers, apprehending little danger of being made answerable for their error, were not disposed to make nice distinctions, but detained and sent in

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'* In the case of the Essex, Orme, there were also some suspicious circumstances, which might of themselves have justified the condemnation. But it was well understood, and it is admitted by the author of "War in Disguise," p. 62. that this more rigid mode of determining the true criteria of the continuity of a voyage was established by this decision.'

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every vessel they met with under the most frivolous pretences, in which they were also encouraged by the expectation of actual war. Of the extent to which this was carried, some idea may be formed, when it is stated, that cargoes, wholly of American produce, and of the produce of neutral countries trading with America, were captured, and even brought to trial *. In these instances, the judge decreed restitution of ship and cargo, and costs against the captors, with expressions of indignation, which so lawless an outrage necessarily excited; but the latter had, in the face of this censure, the audacity to enter appeals, and the American was obliged either to compromise or leave to the captors the option of bringing forward his appeal within a twelvemonth, with the possible advantage of an intervening war securing to him his prize †. The owners of privateers are in the daily practice of bringing in valuable cargoes, and offering immediately to release them for one or two hundred guineas; they sometimes require a much larger sum; and the London merchant is either obliged to acquiesce in this iniquitous robbery, or let his correspondent suffer the more expensive vexations, which it is unfortunately in the power of these people to inflict.'

Mr. B. thus closes his account of the differences between the two countries:

'We have now reviewed the neutral commerce of America, and our conduct towards it, from the beginning of the last war until the commencement of the present administration; and it will be difficult to discover those concessions on our part, and those insolent incroachments on that of America, with the repetition of which the newspapers and publications of this country have endeavoured to inflame the public mind. We have seen, on the contrary, that America never took any part in the extravagant pretensions of the northern powers, at whose courts she had even no accredited ministers, and that her complaints of the system of vexation and oppression prac-

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'* The Governor Gilman, loaded with tobacco from New York to Amsterdam, and the Orion, from St. Petersburgh to America, tried in the Court of Admiralty in October 1807.'

'† The right of appeal, instituted as a security against injustice, has been made a most formidable instrument of what it was intended to guard against. The captor almost invariably appeals when the inferior court decrees an acquittal! he has, in consequence, one year certain, during which he can keep the owner in suspense, with the addition of any farther time which the ingenuity of his lawyer may gain for him; and if, in the mean time, war is declared with the country to which the ship belongs, condemnation follows without reference to the merits of the first capture. When war was declared against Denmark, vessels of that country were then condemned in the court of Appeal, which were detained four and five years before. An immediate and summary decision is an undoubted and a principal right of neutrals; and if this practice is to be countenanced, they would be materially benefited by abandoning the right of appeal altogether.'

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tised towards her commerce since the year 1805, were but too well founded.'

Respecting the state of opinions in America, Mr. Baring's remarks are well worthy of consideration: but we have not room to quote them.

The author thus concludes a very luminous and convincing exposition of the interest of this country in the prosperity of America:

'From the examination which we have concluded of the nature and extent of the commerce of America, the following consequences are obvious:—First, that it is for our interest to promote the consumption of the produce of the soil of America in all parts of the world, and that three-fourths of the money proceeding from that consumption of the Continent of Europe are paid to us: secondly, that we are also interested in the indirect trade of America, and that articles of our own manufacture are the principal objects of it: and lastly, that every dictate of sound policy should lead us to see with pleasure the prosperity of a country, whose accumulating wealth contributes in various ways most essentially to our own.'

One of the most serious among the consequences, which Mr. Baring apprehends from the effects of the Orders of Council, is thus represented:

'A principal danger from sudden and forced changes, produced by the interference of Government in commercial affairs, arises from the difficulty and almost impossibility of tracing its extensive consequences and ramifications through the whole economy of a nation: for, although in the present instance, the decay of our manufactures is the most conspicuous consequence, another evil, of a most serious nature, presents itself.

'I have shewn, that, even supposing the cordial co-operation of America in the execution of the Orders in Council, there would be a diminution of our receipts from the Continent of four or five millions sterling. The moderate state of our foreign exchanges for some time past, shews how much we want this large aid, which our American connection indirectly afforded; and every merchant connected with America knows that this demand alone for bills on London, which has prevailed in every part of the Continent, has for a long time supported the exchange, the circulation of which, even between Paris and London, all the vigilance of the enemy has not been able to prevent. In this manner we have paid to a considerable extent, for the support of our fleets and armies in the Mediterranean and the Baltic *, by sending our manufactures to America; a circumstance which must be easily understood by those who know the effect of the general circulation of exchanges, and that bills are fre-

'* Bills drawn by our Commissaries in the Mediterranean on the Treasury, to a large amount, are frequently received from Leghorn, and other ports, for American account.

quently

quently drawn in Paris, or Madrid, whilst the real transaction in merchandize, which gave rise to them, may have taken place in Russia or in India. Is it probable that this great defalcation will be made up in any other quarter? The only part of the Continent with which (to judge from present appearances) we have a chance of direct or indirect trade, is Russia; but with that country, the balance in the best times is against us, and this intercourse would rather increase than correct the evil.'—

'When the arm of power interferes, and deprives us at a blow of four or five millions sterling, which the industry of our manufacturers, if left to themselves, would have procured for us; at the same time that political causes prevent that corresponding contraction of our wants abroad, which it would otherwise be hardly possible to produce so suddenly as to meet the exigency; the consequences of such a shock demand the most serious consideration; and more especially when applied to a country standing in the singular predicament of abandoning the general medium of circulation, gold and silver, for paper, which is of no value beyond its own limits.'

We would solicit public attention to the remarkable circumstance recorded in the subsequent passage. One or the other party must err:

'We have a strong proof of the opinion of the enemy on the subject in question, in the singular coincidence that, while we were determining that the neutral state of America was injurious to us he had come to precisely the opposite conclusion; and a very short time before the appearance of our Orders in Council, it seems that the intention of France to permit no longer the neutrality of America was intimated to the Minister of that country at Paris—a circumstance which, reaching America very fortunately before our Orders in Council, may serve to mitigate the resentment with which the latter must otherwise be received. We therefore evidently differ in opinion with France as to the value of this neutrality, which both countries at the same instant had resolved to extinguish. I am decidely disposed to think the opinion of our enemies the best judged. At all events, it must serve to reduce our idea of the extreme annoyance to them which we expect from our measures.'

In our selection of extracts, it has not been our object to consult the vitiated taste or to fan the miserable deceptions of the day; we have had solely in view the wishes of those who seek and value real information. Though both the publications which we have been reviewing are possessed of rare merit, they are marked by a great difference of character. In the former, we see acted the part of a dextrous and powerful advocate, in the latter we seem to peruse the advice and councils of a friend; nothing can be more forcible and luminous than the statements of the one, nothing more ingenuous and candid than the representations of the other; the

the one is a most able *ex parte* argument, the other a free and liberal disquisition; the one *forces*, the other *wins* our assent.

Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1808.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 12. *A Plan for permanently arming the Subjects of this Realm.* By a Field-Officer of the Line, an Inspector of Volunteers in the Home District. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Egerton. 1807.

THE preface to this small performance states that, since this plan was prepared for the press, the author has seen a pamphlet purporting to be the speech of the Earl of Selkirk in the House of Lords, on a motion made by Lord Hawkesbury to permit a proportion of the militia to volunteer into the line; and that his Lordship's ideas, expressed in that speech, correspond very much with those which are here delivered. Be this as it may, *we* cannot coincide with either that noble Earl or the author; since the manifest object of the present plan is to destroy all voluntary exertions in the defence of this island, to extinguish that patriotic zeal which first gave birth to the volunteering system and still supports it, and to establish permanently and generally a coercive species of service, that would soon convert our government into a rigorous military despotism. It would subject all men in the country from 18 to 45 years of age, who have not 200l. per annum of funded or landed property, (with a few exceptions,) to a fine of 50l. each for not serving if drawn by ballot; while at the same time they remain liable to be drawn for the militia, and their parishes are bound to furnish others in their stead. It also sentences each person to a fine for every instance of non-attendance with his company on days of exercise or inspection; to indictment and imprisonment for a month if he absents himself six times, and even pays his fines; if oftener, to be tried by a court martial of local militia officers, and, if found guilty, to be sentenced to serve for seven years in such regiment of the line as the King may order; and for impropriety of conduct while attending his duty, to be sent on board the fleet, or to serve *out of the country*.—It moreover subjects every man, from 18 to 45 years of age, who possesses a funded or landed property of 200l. per annum, and declines serving as an officer, to a tax of ten per cent. on income in addition to the present tax, with the exception of members of parliament, the clergy, &c. The money arising from this additional tax is to be appropriated to the remuneration of half-pay officers of the line, who may be appointed to serve instead of the defaulters; and the persons paying it are notwithstanding to be liable to the ballot for the militia.

To any man who is acquainted with military subjects beyond the drill and the parade, and who has reflected seriously on the proper mode of defending Great Britain, it must be a matter of concern and regret

regret to see the press almost daily teem with chimerical, unconstitutional, and oppressive projects for embodying the population of this country; while they contain not a single observation deserving of notice, relative to the proper application of the force which we already possess, for the purposes of national defence. We have more men embodied now, and sufficiently disciplined, than are requisite to repel any invasion that may be attempted, if a judicious use be made of them. Are we, then, to adopt a plan destructive of our liberties, in order to provide against a contingency that may never happen; and which, were it to take place to-morrow, we are already more than competent to meet, under skilful leaders? Glen.

NOVELS.

Art. 13. *But which?* or Domestic Grievances of the Wolmore Family. By the Author of Leopold. 12mo, 2 Vols. sewed. Bentley. 1807.

The readers of novels may find some amusement in these volumes, though they will probably agree with us that it is rather hard to select an honest and inoffensive man, the best of the family, as a sacrifice for the vices and follies of the rest:—yet such is the case. O.

Art. 14. *Theodore, or the Enthusiast.* 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. sewed. Longman and Co.

This is an importation from Germany; and, although not so horrible as some others from that country, it contains a sufficient portion of miseries and premature deaths. O.

Art. 15. *Alphonsine:* or Maternal Affection. By Madame Genlis. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 2s. sewed. Hughes.

Whatever may be thought of the original production of Mad. Genlis, we cannot speak favourably of it in its present shape; for in this translation its beauties are obscured, and its faults rendered more glaring. O.

LAW.

Art. 16. *The Constable's Assistant;* being a Compendium of the Duties and Powers of Constables and other Peace Officers; chiefly as they relate to the apprehending of Offenders, and laying Information before Magistrates. By the Society for the Suppression of Vice. 8vo. pp. 48. 1s. Rivingtons. 1808.

To render generally known the duties of legal functionaries, and exhort them to their due discharge, must be praise-worthy acts; and if the Society, which sends out this publication, never overstepped this course, it would in our opinion deserve and obtain general commendation. The office of Constable (to borrow the language of the law) is more ministerial than judicial; this tract, we think, insists too much on the latter branch of it: not that this is to be overlooked, but we doubt the expediency of extending it beyond the limits to which law and practice have confined it. We rather doubt, also, the visitorial powers in regard to public houses, here ascribed to constables, on the authority of Mr. Colquhoun.

The

The Society have taken the opinion of a respectable Gentleman of the law on their performance, and his judgment is prefixed to it. He pays an adroit compliment to the editors; and though we do not anticipate all the good from this tract which Mr. Const promises to his clients, still we agree with him in thinking that "it contains sufficient instruction *to enable* the officer to act with advantage to the community and with safety to himself." Jo.

Art. 17. *Letters on Capital Punishments*, addressed to the English Judges. By Beccaria Anglicus. 8vo. pp. 85. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1807.

A subject, in favour of which the interests of society plead equally with justice and humanity, is here urged on the attention of the venerable persons to whom it is addressed, in a style that is highly forcible and becoming. Though we cannot adopt, in an unqualified manner, all the abstract propositions asserted in this tract, we are as zealous as the author for the leading object of it, and as fully impressed with its importance. Of the benefits of a contrary system to that which is pursued in our penal code, we have not the least doubt, but the difficulties in the way of effecting a revision of it are truly great. Where shall we find spirit and patriotism to attempt it; and have the public a disposition to hail and support efforts of this kind? Distant enterprizes the most chimerical are preferred to solid internal improvements. The endeavours to reform the administration of justice in another part of the island, and attempts to heal the wounds of an important limb of the empire, have been treated with ridicule, and represented as below the notice of statesmen in these times; while the capture of some foreign settlement, and problematical expeditions which entail heavy burthens on the state, have been extolled as political atchievements of the first importance. When so many men justify outrages on public law, can we expect that encouragement will be given to any endeavours to reform our municipal jurisprudence?

We would not be understood, however, to discourage attempts like the present, for such is very far from our intention; and however inauspicious the moment may be, let no friend to virtue and humanity relax in his efforts to advance knowlege or disseminate good principles. The reign of delusion, it is to be hoped, will sometime pass away, and the public again learn to distinguish between its true interests and deceptive chimeras. Should such a period ever arrive, the object so fully developed and so ably supported in this pamphlet will be one among the first that will engage the attention of the sage and the philanthropist. We fully agree with the author that in a well constituted society capital punishments are not only unnecessary, but 'that they are really injurious,' and that 'vindictive laws and sanguinary punishments retard the progress of civilization. By accustoming the people to scenes of horror, they tend to brutalize their manners, and make them regardless of the sufferings of others. In every nation, it will be found, that the people at large derive much of their character from the established laws and customs. If the laws and customs be austere, ferocious,

ferocious, and cruel, a considerable degree of austerity, ferocity and cruelty, will be discoverable in the people. Capital punishments retain the barbarous aspect of *vandalism*, and better assort with the manners of savage tribes than with those of a nation which holds the first rank in the civilized world. A man unaccustomed to inflict pain, or to see it inflicted, on his fellow-creatures, would be far less disposed to injure others, and be more affected with their sufferings, than one who had been long accustomed to see severe punishments inflicted, supposing their character to be in other respects the same. He who never saw any one die a violent death, unless he be destitute of every virtuous feeling, will shudder at the idea of inflicting such a death; but a man may be accustomed to such sights, until his feelings are so benumbed that, if he be much irritated, or any strong passion urge him to the deed, he will shed the blood of another without much emotion. Whatever tends to weaken the generous feelings of the heart, and render men indifferent to the sufferings of others, diminishes moral excellency, and is injurious to the character; but severe punishments have manifestly this tendency. That excellent writer, *Beccaria*, has expressed the same opinion. "In proportion (says he) as punishments become more cruel, the minds of men, as a fluid rises to the same height as that which surrounds it, grow hardened and insensible; and the force of the passions still continuing, in the space of a hundred years, the *wheel* terrifies no more than formerly the prison. That a punishment may produce the effect required, it is sufficient that the *evil* it occasions should exceed the good expected from the crime; including in the calculation the certainty of the punishment, and the privation of the advantage. All severity beyond this is superfluous, and therefore tyrannical."

Capital punishments are deprecated by this author as unnecessary to the well-being of society, as partaking of the nature of *revenge*, as subversive of the chief end of correction which is *amendment*, as making no reparation for injury committed, and as inconsistent with the spirit of the Christian Religion.

EDUCATION.

Art. 18. *The Child's Monitor*, or Parental Instruction; in Five Parts; containing a great Variety of progressive Lessons, adapted to the comprehension of Children; and calculated to instruct them in Reading, in the Use of Stops, in Spelling, and dividing Words into proper Syllables; and at the same time to give them, some Knowledge of Natural History, of the Scriptures, and of several other sublime and important Subjects. By John Hornsey. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Among the various useful books that have been lately published for the improvement of young persons, the work before us claims a very respectable station. The young scholar will here not only reap improvement in learning, but at the same time be advanced in useful knowlege: literature, instruction, and amusement go hand in hand; and the public are under obligations to the author for bringing so many objects together for the advantage of the rising generation.

Art. 19. *The Book of Monosyllables*; or an Introduction to the Child's Monitor; adapted to the Capacities of young Children; in two Parts; calculated to instruct them by familiar Gradations in the first Principles of Education and Morality. By John Hornsey. 12mo. 1s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co.

A great number of monosyllabic lessons are here collected, beginning with words of two letters only, and advancing gradually to those that are longer. Like the foregoing publication, to which this is intended for an introduction, its design is not confined to the attainment of language, but aims at more important ends. We may recommend both works to the notice of those who are engaged in teaching the elements of the English language. W. Re-s

POETRY.

Art. 20. *The Goodness of God*, a Poem: to which are added pious Meditations, with important Considerations, and Advice to the young unmarried Man and Woman. By William Neville Hart, formerly a Captain in his Majesty's 79th Regiment of Infantry. Crown 8vo. pp. 100. Jones. 1806.

A captain in the army will not be expected to be a profound theologian, and some excuse must be made for him if he be not a charming poet. Mr. Hart seems to write under serious impressions, and from a good motive: but he has not sufficiently studied his subject, and appears to have little knowlege of the constituent properties of true poetry. From a short specimen, our readers will perceive that this work is not intitled to any critical examination:

'On thee, my God! I lean: advanc'd the hour,
The time of day far spent; at length I seek
The vineyard of "I Am!" My work begun,
Continu'd firmly, persever'd in, *done*,
May I receive *my penny* with the rest,
With those who labour'd *from the first of morn*.'

The author's penitence and piety may be truly commendable, but for his poetry a penny is too great a price. Mo.

Art. 21. *The Triumphs of Petrarch*, translated into English Verse, with an Introduction and Notes. By the Rev. Henry Boyd, A. M., Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Duke of Sussex, &c. 12mo. pp 286. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The Italian scholar alone is intitled to appreciate with accuracy the beauties and the defects of the *Trionfi* of Petrarch: but the English reader may still conceive the nature and spirit of these effusions, through the medium of translation. Mr. Boyd's preface and introduction bespeak no ordinary share of taste and polite learning; and in respect of ease and elegance of manner, we consider his present attempt as very deserving of commendation, and likely to be perused with pleasing emotion by the admirers of ethical and impressive poetry. We are duly warned, however, against adopting it as a faithful transcript of the original. Petrarch's manner, it must be confessed, is somewhat

sometimes quaint, abrupt, or obscure: but we may be allowed to doubt whether the peculiar style of any writer will justify licence and diffusion in his translator.

As we gave several specimens of Mr. Boyd's poetic talents in reviewing his former publications, (see Rev. Vol. lii. N. S. p. 50. and 54.) we may be excused from making extracts on the present occasion: but we must not withhold the remark that we have still to regret the little pains which he has bestowed on the correction of his rhymes. In his preliminary sonnet, to Mr. Roscoe, we meet with *veiled* and *steeled;* and, amid much polish and evident facility of versification, we cannot easily pardon *star* and *snare*, *ear* and *share*, *broke* and *struck*, *draught* and *thought*, *smiled* and *filled*, *beneath* and *faith*, *doom* and *roam*, &c. In his prose, the most glaring defect is a disregard of the concord of noun and verb. Thus we have 'the contrast—*imprint*,' 'that dissolution—which *make*,' 'the natural sentiments—*is*,' &c.—These subordinate blemishes, however, are proportionably less numerous here than in his translation of Dante: and, in a work of considerable length, some of them might be overlooked as the *paucæ maculæ* to which we are enjoined to extend the charity of criticism. **Muir.**

Art. 22. *Isabel:* from the Spanish of Garcilaso de la Vega; with other Poems and Translations from the Greek, Italian, &c. &c. By Robert Walpole, Esq., B.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Mr. Walpole treats the public liberally: he opens his study door, and shews them his amusements; and it is by an indulgence of this sort that we often know a man better than by the sight of his serious and formal occupations. Mr. W. however, has no reason to be ashamed of his sports and relaxations; the nature of them is defensible, and his skill in them is respectable: the harp is indeed borrowed, but he modulates on it learnedly, and plays with taste.

The present small volume consists of 25 poems, translated from the Spanish, the Greek, the Italian, the French, the German, &c.—Isabel, and the succeeding nine, are now published for the first time: but the others formerly appeared, annexed to "Specimens of scarce Translations of the 17th Century from the Latin Poets," by Creech, Sir C. Sedley, Du Perron, Nicole, B. Jonson, &c. noticed in the Review for December 1806.—The poems newly translated are from Garcilaso de la Vega, Ariosto, Gesner, Kleist, Parny, Francisco de Figueroa, Petrarca, &c. In comparing these translations with such of the originals as we happen to have at hand, we have reason to commend their fidelity and neatness. Considerable beauty, indeed, is discovered in particular passages; as in these stanzas from the Isabel of Garcilaso de la Vega:

'And here when life first smil'd,
Did Hope, sweet Fancy's child,
Bid the blythe hours in circling rapture roll:
But thou, fell grave, at last
Hast torn with withering blast
Each wreath that joy had twin'd around my soul.

'O that thy ruthless power
Had in some future hour,
Some later time, pronounced her fatal doom!
Perchance with age opprest
I then had sunk to rest,
Then follow'd thee, Eliza, to thy tomb.

'And is all fled like dreams,
That fade before Morn's beams?
In vain these eyes each grace, each charm, require,
That once thy form around
With youth and beauty crown'd,
Awaked pure love and kindled young desire.

'No more thy lips disclose
Sweets of the opening rose,
No more thy dark locks float upon the wind;
And in the grave below,
Cold lies that breast of snow,
Which Virtue chasten'd, and which Taste refin'd.—

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* * * * * *

'How oft I turn to view
This lock of auburn hue,
Once wont to shade thy breast of snow.
At sight of pledge so dear,
How starts the trembling tear,
Yet does the trembling tear some sad relief bestow.

* * * * * *
* * * * * *

'But thou, blest shade, on high,
Who in th' empyreal sky
Dost tread the fields of endless joy and love,
O let thy prayers prevail,
That from this body frail
My spirit soon may soar to thee above!

'There in the realms of light,
With purest ether bright,
To sounds of bliss our raptur'd lyres shall wake;
While crown'd with blushing flowers
From never fading bowers,
Thro' the third heaven our onward march we take.'

The following, from the Sicilian of Meli, has considerable merit in the original, and much beauty in the translation:

"Ye shadowy forms! night's offspring! ye that breathe
Your darkening horrors round these forests deep,
And in these caves your silent dwelling keep;

O that

O that I here amidst your glooms might breathe
Th' expiring sigh!—and when the guilty maid
Shall wonder where my lowly tomb is laid,
O say that here "life's fitful fever o'er,"
He, whom her scorn hath kill'd, now finds repose.
Haply across her cheek some tear may steal,
Yet deem not that the tear from pity flows;
For pity sure that breast can never feel:
Her eyes will weep, because there lives no more
One who for her with hopeless flames will burn,
And mourn with fruitless sighs, and love without return."

We cannot help observing, however, that in various of the poems here translated, we discover a *thinness* of meaning that renders their translation no great acquisition to English rhyme, unless the expression, which is in general elegant, is to be duly estimated. To Mr. Walpole, who no doubt wishes to improve in the different languages whence he translated, this last circumstance would be a powerful recommendation.

As might be expected, when we advert to the character of the original authors, we find sometimes passages which are fantastical and highly sombrous. The ensuing verses have in them at the same time beauty mixed with extravagance:

'Still through the day's slow lingering hours,
With unavailing anguish flow
These burning sighs, these endless showers,
That speak my tortur'd bosom's woe.

'And when the pearly car of eve
In silver radiance rides on high,
Still does my heart with sorrow heave,
Still starts the tear-drop in mine eye.

'Or should I lay me down at night,
To woo the balmy power of sleep;
Thy vision swims before my sight,
And e'en in dreams for thee I weep.

'And when the golden morn appears,
And blushes in th' ethereal plain,
It finds my eyes still bath'd in tears,
Still weeping for thy cold disdain.'

Here it is fortunate that the mind fastens on the neatness and beauty of the language, and on a certain appropriation that possesses something like a general congruity; for the thought, as it is conducted to its acme, without doubt approaches to excess and absurdity.—Night and sleep were formerly wont to do something for a man, even when in love: but Francisco de Figueroa runs a most wretched gauntlet, and it seems endless, for it is circular. We every day see people running against time, and often overthrown: but this is time, in all its divisions, running against a poor miserable

wretch, and, with the help of his mistress, blotting out at once all his comforts, while every one wonders how this comes to pass.

In a modest Latin note at the end of the volume, Mr. W. resists, at least for the present, the solicitations of his friends, who urge him to publish some College exercises and some Greek poems. Such things are often curiosities, and in the present instance we are satisfied that we should find elegance: but it is to be remembered that, in reading a composition which solicits our approbation, we are seldom chronologists, and the years of the writer constantly slip out of our minds. Milton published his *Prolusiones*, and also Greek poetry, but it is the curious only who wish to possess them. The great legislator of the Jews required that the fruit of young trees should be pulled off for some years, and not be allowed immaturely to ripen.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *Sermons on various interesting Subjects,* by the Rev. Joshua Morton, Vicar of Risely, in the County of Bedford, &c. Vol II. 8vo. pp. 385. 8s. Boards. Mawman.

The thirty discourses, that form this volume, are introduced by a short preface, which tells us that they were 'delivered in different situations, and, as will be easily perceived, to a varied description of hearers. Their studied plainness and brevity leave them without pretensions to laboured discussion. The author stops not either to suppose objections, or to answer them.—This volume, as well as the former, will, he trusts, be found to contain plain scriptural doctrine; and which may at least serve "to stir up the pure minds of sincere Christians of every denomination, by way of remembrance."—So far Mr. M.'s intention appears to be good; and in like manner refraining from minute 'objections,' we must applaud that genuine fervency, and that plain and engaging zeal, with which he urges his hearers to repentance and reformation. The observations which have been already made on his first volume * accord very well with the present.

POLITICS.

Art. 24. *The Discovery of the true and natural Era of Mankind,* and the Means of carrying it into Effect. Addressed to His Majesty. 8vo. pp. 80. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

Art. 25. *Means adequate to the present Crisis, and future Prosperity and Happiness of the Empire;* or Proposals for the proper management of public Affairs, and for procuring an immediate, advantageous, secure, and permanent Peace. 8vo. pp. 124. 5s. Johnson. 1807.

In these tracts, the reasons which the author (George Edwards, Esq. M.D.) has before advanced in favour of peace are again urged, and many of them highly deserve attention. As to the grand schemes which he proposes, we must repeat the confession which we have formerly made on similiar occasions, that they are

* See M. Rev. Vol. lxxxi. p. 76.

too

too sublime for our apprehension. We should hope that, in the paradisaical era here contemplated, simplicity of language would prevail; and we wish that this author would in the mean time anticipate that prevalence: then might the golden days which he promises be less a mystery to us than they now are, owing to the generalities in which he deals, and which render the perusal of his performances irksome and unprofitable. As some of our readers, however, may possess greater acuteness than has fallen to our lot, we shall submit to them the author's own account of the outlines of that grand change to which he looks forwards, and which it requires only the concurrence of the king and the people to introduce:

'The grand era of national perfection, which is at present proposed, will consist in the following heads being carried into complete effect, and afterward duly maintained and upholden, by their proper means:

'1. In various executive measures, simple and compound, which will constitute the different aggregate interests of society, or that prosperous, happy, and complete state of a kingdom or empire, which may be called it's national perfection, or proper organization. In the same manner those measures may be called the executive or constituent means of national perfection or organization, or of an era of national perfection.

'2. An art or ability of practical improvement which is equally adapted to the proper conduct, management, and institution of national perfection, and it's proper era, and of grand enterprises, and business in general.

'3. A scientific and practical system of general welfare, which, suitably drawn up, may be considered as the explanation, the philosophy, guide and luminary of the era proposed

'4. The appropriate and instinctive propensities of general welfare, or national perfection, and it's proposed era. They are the meliorative disposition of man; public and national philanthropy; the principle of rectitude, which causes man to be offended with what is wrong, leads him to rectify it, and to uphold what is right, and which extends to every thing of this description, natural as well as moral; and practical religion, or what may be thus called.'

Dr. E. advertises himself as *the author of the Income or Property Tax.* Is this one of the *Discoveries* of which we should give him joy? Q. 2. Jo.

Art. 26. *A Discourse upon the true Character of our Late Proceedings in the Baltic.* Comprizing a few cursory Remarks upon His Majesty's Declarations of the 25th September and 18th December, 1807. By the Author of Cursory Remarks, and of the Appeal to the People on the Necessity of restoring the Spanish Treasure Ships. 3d Edition. 8vo. pp. 145. 5s. Maxwell and Wilson. 1808.

Though we cannot boast of feelings so ardent, and are unable to express ourselves in terms so glowing, as those of the writer of this pamphlet, we regret equally with him any violation of public morality to which our country has unhappily been made a party;

and we are not less convinced than he is, that she was at an infinite distance from that necessity which is supposed to justify the course that has been pursued. We are sorry that with talents such as this author possesses, he did not inveigh less, and argue more: for his tract is calculated rather to rouse and inflame the indignation of those who agree with him in his conclusions, than to establish those conclusions themselves. The more important view of this subject is exhibited in Lord Erskine's Protest: but the just ideas, which are there so well stated, are susceptible of a far greater development than we have yet seen given to them.

It has been said, but certainly without truth, that ninety-nine out of a hundred of the people of this country approved a late too celebrated expedition; the present author gives a different view of that matter:

'The Spanish and Danish plunder, I fear not, will one day be restored; and in the whole empire there are not twenty individuals either interested, or pledged to resist the restitution. And this I say in *the broad and general hope* of a returning public principle and character in England; for as to the immediate object of the present discourse, there is very particular ground and room for English pride and feeling—for consolation, for hope, and even for exultation. I allude to the manner in which the *triumph* of the King's ministers was received by his good cities of London and Westminster;—for, in spite of cruel *necessity* and pious *reluctance*, and the *hard paramount duty* imposed upon them, it had somehow become a triumph; not, doubtless, because it had been procured with the blood of so many brave and loyal subjects of the King's ally, his friend, and brother-in-law, and the conflagration of a peaceful capital.—It had however become a triumph, and his Majesty's garrisons received orders to announce it as a triumph. What answered this good and great metropolis? just, generous interpreter, and, I hope, eternal example of public sentiment and virtue? Not a farthing candle, not a boy's bonfire, not a garret window, not a butcher with his adz and bone, not a drunken fiddler, not a squib, a cry, a song, or a shout, profaned or belied the sterling sense, the grave imperturbable honesty, the genuine feeling and character of the people. The ministers piped, and they would not dance; they would not hear "the voice of the charmer, although he charmed so wisely;" they answered only with sullen indignation to those peals and vollies with which the authors of the expedition were converting into a triumph that CRUEL, HARD, PAINFUL, IRRESISTIBLE NECESSITY, with which they had hitherto seduced and lulled the conscience of the country! Oh, memorable day, worthy to survive in history what remains to be achieved of our decline and disgrace, and extinction? Oh day! so truly free and British, and perhaps so near the last day of freedom and of Britain!'

It will be difficult for admirers and adherents the most devoted, to vindicate the parties concerned from the just criticism of the ensuing passage:

'If *proper*, *decent*, *respectful*, and *diplomatic language*, could have been found for it, no statesman could have wished the Russian Emperor to have remained unadmonished of the sense with which the English *public* have regarded his conduct, since the battle of Friedland.

land. It is, however, at St. Petersburgh, and by ways partaking of personal delicacy, and "considerate regard" for his Imperial Majesty's situation, that wise and temperate Ministers would have communicated their regret, their disappointment, and their remonstrance. They would have known, that an argument and a pleading, which is held *before all the world, cannot* be conciliatory or pacific! That taunts and epigrams, and pleasantries of state, are always unbecoming and always misplaced. They would have avoided all cavil, and all bitterness. TRUE logic, and A PROUD SINCERITY, ARE THE SUBLIME OF A STATE PAPER! Our late magnanimous ally had fallen, but he was to be reclaimed, and not exasperated; to be won back by gentleness and conviction, and not plunged and driven on by unfeeling chicanery: we had but one alternative with the Court of Russia, if we placed any credit in the paper we had received as the secret articles of Tilsit—We were to punish, or to reclaim. To Cronstadt, and to *that fleet*, with which, we may *now, in fact*, and at no great distance of time be menaced, we might have directed our category and our thunder. But if we did not, our intercourse should have been mild and conciliatory. ALL Russia was not *then* against us, nor all mankind. But that we were *intent* to *insult* the ally we had lost, is not only evident from the pert and biting style of the Westminster Declaration, but from the material confession contained in it, that in the very moment of our burning Copenhagen, we applied to the "PROTECTOR of the NORTH," to mediate for us a peace with his *protégé!!* And what do our Ministers say in excuse, that they did not *mean* an insult to the Emperor, as if any man, in the use of his faculties, could think a greater insult could be offered or devised.'

The author states a suspicion that a fresh *hoax* has been played on our ministry; and that another Mehé de la Touche has, at a most extravagant expence, furnished our foreign secretary with forged secret articles of Tilsit:—on which he observes,

'It would be a curious circumstance, if the real contriver of our plunder at Copenhagen had been Napoleon himself—if it had been owing to papers fabricated by his orders, and communicated at an expence to us, of, perhaps, 40,000l. sterling, by *his* spy, in *our* pay and *service*.'

Jo.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 27. *The Conveniences, Principles, and Method of Keeping Accounts with Bankers in the Country and in London*; with accurate Tables adapted to the calculating of Interest Accounts with Ease and Dispatch; and to the discounting of Bills of Exchange, wherein the Table of Interest for one day is extended to one million Pounds, for calculating Interest.—Accounts on the Principle adopted by the London Bankers. Also, other useful and extensive Tables. To which is added, a concise and practical Treatise on Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes, including Bankers Cash Notes and Checks.—In two parts. By William Lowrie, Sheffield. 8vo. pp. 320. Boards. Longman and Co. London.

With

With no animated feelings, but from mere duty, we sat down to the apparently cheerless task of perusing some of these pages: but, to our surprize, we found ourselves advance rapidly and with avidity. That we met with pleasure, where we expected drudgery, is partly to be placed to the account of the author, for the merit of his statements; and partly to the effect of something like a mental enchantment, because, in reading the transactions by which thousands and tens of thousands were transferred, we almost fancied ourselves rich. With critics, however, even the dream of wealth lasts not long; and in "the sober certainty" of not possessing promissory notes, inland bills, drafts, &c. &c. we report that the detail and explanation of these momentous things are here very clearly and intelligibly drawn up; and that probably the account, with reference to law, established custom, and real fact, is faithful and accurate: but on this latter point, we are not qualified to speak with certainty.

The Tables of Interest are convenient: containing, up to December 31, the Interest of Sums from 1l. to 1000l. for every day in the year. The interest on a compound sum is found, as is usual, by addition. Thus, to find interest on 1183l. for 334 days;

Interest on	1000	is	45	15	$6\frac{3}{4}$
on	100		4	11	6
on	83		3	16	2
Interest on	1183	is	54	2	$8\frac{3}{4}$

Again, to find Interest on 100l. from March 13 to June 13, the operation is;

Interest from March 13 to end of year is	4	0	$3\frac{1}{4}$
from June 13 is	2	15	$0\frac{3}{4}$
Interest for Interval is	1	5	$2\frac{1}{2}$

In speaking of the accuracy of his Tables, and of the second part, the author says:

'Accuracy being a point of most material consequence in tables of any kind, it may be proper to observe, that these tables were actually calculated upon the manuscript without being transcribed; and that each calculation was dependent on the preceding one throughout, so that no error could arise without its being discovered. But, independently of the proof thus obtained, they have undergone a strict examination; and the author firmly believes, that in the whole of the manuscript, no error exists of greater amount than a farthing; and, before they be printed off, he pledges himself to take the utmost care in examining and correcting every proof sheet from the press: therefore, he thinks he is justified in saying, that *their accuracy may be confidently relied on.*

'From the above advantages, it is hoped that the first part of the work will be found of very extensive utility to all who are, in any way, concerned either with interest accounts, or in discounting bills of exchange; and that the saving of time and trouble resulting from the use thereof, will prove an object of considerable importance.

'THE

'THE SECOND PART

of the publication contains a practical treatise on bills of exchange and promissory notes, (including bankers' cash notes and checks,) arranged in a method entirely new, under distinct heads in regular order; explaining in a concise manner, their different forms and uses together with such circumstances as are particularly necessary to be attended to, in every stage of their progress, by all the parties who may be concerned therein.

'This part is principally intended to guard the unwary against the irregularities, dangers, and litigations, so frequently arising, either from inattention or the want of necessary information on the subject. For though there are many publications relating to bills of exchange and promissory notes, yet none of them appear to have these ends chiefly in view; being, for the most part, codes of law, calculated in a great measure for the assistance of professional men, rather than collections of practical matters adapted to general use.

'The facts have been carefully selected from the most authentic and modern records of the customs, laws, and legal and equitable decisions, by which these instruments are regulated. In short, the second part may be considered as a memorial of the customs and laws by which bills of exchange and promissory notes are governed; divested, as much as may be, of technical terms and unimportant matter; with the addition of many circumstances highly necessary to be attended to in real business, and which are not to be found in books of law.'

A certificate of approbation is added, from various eminent Merchants and Bankers. R.W.

Art. 28. *The Origin of Naval Architecture:* a Discourse accommodated to the General Fast. By Philopharos. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Matthews and Leigh.

By this singular title, our curiosity was excited: but, as soon as we read the text (Hebrews xi. 7.) we found that the mighty discovery was to terminate in Noah being the first ship-builder, and in the Ark being the first ship. The reader is indeed reminded of the cause of the Deluge, and exhorted to seek Jesus Christ as the only ark of deliverance: but the composition of this essay possesses little attraction, unless a tissue of wild and disjointed declamation can be agreeable. *Philopharos* must be very vain to imagine that such a discourse as his was *accommodated* to a fast day, or to any other day. Mo-y.

Art. 29. *A Practical Treatise on the Game of Billiards;* accurately exhibiting the Rules and Practice admitted and established by the first Players of the present Day; and illustrated with a numerous Collection of Cases, explanatory of each of the different Forms of the Game, Calculations for Betting, Tables of Odds, &c. By E. White, Esq. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1807.

This treatise will be very useful to those who have not reached, in the art of Billiards, that eminence which intitles them to look down on written rules, and imagined cases, as the conceits of sophists and amusements for children. Without any such pretence, considerable

siderable science is in fact displayed in the essay; and several maxims, not the results of formal demonstration, but the suggestions of experience, are made intelligible to the reader, and to *square with common sense.* An exact scientific treatise,—so various, complicated, and hard of appreciation are the circumstances,— would be attended with enormous difficulties; of this fact Mr. White is aware; and even with regard to his own book, planned on a reduced scale, and for ordinary purposes, he modestly fears that it will be found incomplete.

'Of the defects (he says) of the Work, the author is more sensible perhaps than any other person can be. Of the merit it may happen to possess, those are best able to judge who have an extensive knowledge of the subject, and who consequently know the difficulty of reducing to a system, a game so diversified as Billiards.

'The principal obstacles the author has had to encounter in the composition, are, 1st. The difficulty of laying down fixed rules, where the propriety of adopting certain modes of play, in preference to others, must be almost uniformly influenced by the degree of manual dexterity of the player.

'2nd, The impossibility of reducing theory to practice, by exemplifying general rules, by regular and connected games. In consequence of these, the work is unavoidably less perfect than he could have wished.

'He has, however, attempted to supply, in some measure, the deficiency by the introduction of select practical cases; and he hopes he has not been altogether unsuccessful.

'Not having the advantage of written authorities to consult, the author has spared no pains in collecting the opinions and practice of the most celebrated players of the present day.'

The tract contains an explanation of the different kinds of Games of Billiards, with their peculiar Rules, and Tables of the Odds at the several points of the Game, on an assigned proportion between the Skill of the Players; and in order that his readers may be enabled to compute for themselves, Mr. White has added some principles and formulas of computation in the doctrine of chances, extracted from De Moivre. The cases of the game are illustrated and explained by diagrams; and on the whole, although in a fastidious fit of refinement we might demand greater exactness and nicety of discussion, we shall properly discharge our duty by recommending Mr. White's treatise to students in the art of playing Billiards. R.W.

Art. 30. *Canterbury Tales.* Vol. V. By Harriet Lee. 8vo. pp. 258. 8s. Boards. Wilkie.

Of Miss Lee's talents as a writer of this species of novel, we have formerly given our opinion (see M.R. Vol. 38. N. S. p. 331.). Her narratives are perhaps too much dilated, but their tendency is to promote those views of life which are favourable to virtue. This volume includes the Landlady's Tale, the Friend's Tale, and the Wife's Tale; which display ingenuity, are calculated to interest the heart, and from each of which an useful and appropriate moral may be deduced. Mo-y.

Art.

Art. 31. *Mental Recreations.* Four Danish and German Tales, entitled Henry and Amelia; the Noble Suitor; Paladin; the Young Dane. By the Author of a Tour in Zealand*.—Crown 8vo. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin.

In discharging our accustomed duty to the public, we often wish that every novel or romance writer had possessed some easy manual containing the canons of this species of composition, which they might fix in their memories, and by means of which they might regulate their progress in weaving their narration and working up their ornaments. We find that so many, who toil hard to delight and edify the public, are ignorant of the first principles of inventive composition, mere tyros in the syntax of facts and characters, and, being carried away by a fertile imagination, drive with great speed and little discrimination into places, and minds, and situations, that we cannot but regret that they had not at hand such a monitor;—and our wishes in this respect were renewed when we read the above work.

These tales are probably the first inventive essay of the author; who informs us that, being otherwise deeply engaged, he had resorted to this employment 'to recreate his mind.'—If at any future time he should feel the desire of recreation returning, and a liberal wish to make the public sharers in his pleasures, we would presume to admonish him to study the doctrine of probability and consistency: for often, in perusing this small volume, and observing the introduction and re entry of the different characters, we have been led to exclaim "whence come you? How did you get here? You seem to have become a different man since we saw you last." We suspect, however, that these tales are built to a certain degree on incidents in real life, and even the improbabilities foster this idea. When events actually happened as described, an unskilful narrator is not solicitous concerning the mode in which he introduces them: but, trusting to their merit as being true, he exhibits them without preparation. When, however, they are merely the fruit of the imagination, they come forwards in a prepared form; a natural endeavour is made to shade them with delicacy into the surrounding colours of the picture of which they make a part; and fancy is desirous of dressing and presenting her own child in a suitable manner.

In works of this sort, as well as in every other species of writing, nature and consistency are of great value:—but what are we to think of this rhodomontade as the expression of ungovernable love? Says the Count to Anna, "draw me up from this pit of fire, cool my burning soul, remove the thorns that sting my wasted form, and beautify thy faithful friend."—Having grown still more violent, he crys out, "if the heavens were to rain fire; if the earth were to breathe forth clouds of pestilence; if the sea were to rise and dash mountains of water on this spot; if the tempest were to tear this house from its foundation and hurl it down an abyss; I would indulge my desire during the dreadful ruin, and perish in the enjoyment. Prepare, Anna; my soul is more than half way on the road to

* See our Review for December last.

perdition; I shall not call it back."—If the concluding tale in the volume was written last, we should say with pleasure that this circumstance is much in favour of the author, since it would be a proof that by practice he had improved; for, compared with the others, it is consistent and natural. Dr Tay.

Art. 32. *Ten Minutes' Advice, on the due Management of our Income,* on the principles of Economy, with a View to promote our temporal Ease and Comfort. 16mo. 1s. Hatchard.

A great book is said to be a great evil: but a little book, at the worst, can only be a little evil; and ten minutes' advice, even if it be not important, cannot be accused of consuming much time. The little book before us, however, must not be dismissed in this cold and negative manner. Though its bulk be small, its matter is weighty, and, in these times, is intitled to peculiar consideration. Incomes which, a few years ago, were regarded as large, now require to be managed with rigid economy, in order to afford to a family the comforts of life. The thoughts here submitted to the attention of gentlemen will be admitted by every one, who keeps a regular account of his expenditure, to be tolerably correct; and if the items of the several calculations be not such as tally with universal experience, the view of the several departments of expence is sufficiently exact to prove the point which this writer labours to establish. Suppose a family to be composed of a gentleman, his wife, one child grown up and living with them, and an establishment of a man and two female servants; the income to be 800l. for the husband's life, and the family usually residing in London; it will be found that the pleasures and comforts, which may at first sight be supposed to be within their reach, cannot be obtained without a due observance of order and economy; that, under the heads of rent, taxes, wages, &c. a much larger sum is expended than would be assigned by those who do not calculate; and that, when the expences of a family, which ramify themselves in various ways, are discharged, a very small surplus remains out of the 800l. even when economy is "the order of the day" In course, if economy be not consulted, embarrassment and perhaps ruin must be the consequence. Such is the lesson contained in this little book, and at no period was the advice more wanted. Mo-y.

Art. 33. *Every Adventurer in the present State Lotteries his own Dupe.* With introductory Strictures on the various Speculations published under the specious Titles of national Institutions and Companies. Being a Treatise demonstrating that Gaming in the present Lotteries is more deceitful and disadvantageous, as well as more pernicious to the Morals of the People, than Hazard; or any other game prohibited by Law. By the Author of Every Man his own Broker. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Maxwell and Wilson. 1808.

Such is the spirit of Gaming, or of *Speculation*, which possesses the public mind, that no sanguine hopes can be entertained of any great impression being made by the pages before us; though they present us with glaring facts, and justly expose the folly of those

those individuals who found splendid expectations on the fashionable schemes of chance. They who dream of Fortune, and depend for success on one of her blind throws, will despise calculation, and will not be deterred by the vast odds against them. It is in vain to tell an adventurer that, when he gives 1l. 8s. for a sixteenth of a Lottery ticket, he has purchased a chance not worth more than 12s. 6d., and that if he gains a sixteenth of a 20l. prize, he loses 16s. The following *calculation of the odds* in the present Lottery is exhibited:

'The probability against gaining one of the prizes of

£20,000	is	8332 .... to	1 nearly.
10,000	the same		
5,000	6249 .... to	1	
1,000	1249	1	
500	832	1	
100	555	1	
50	416	1	
21	24	1	
15	4	1	
'Against any prize at all,	3	1 nearly.	

'Three *sixteenth* shares, at £1 : 8 : 0, cost ... £4 4 0
'For one drawn a prize of £20, you will receive at the offices 1 4 0

Loss £3 0 0

'Do you subscribe to Solomon's maxim—"that the battle is not to the strong, neither the race to the swift, but time and chance happen to all men?" If so, look attentively to the above calculations, and let the present lottery be drawn for fools, but not for you.'

The author is perfectly aware of the pernicious effects which arise from the sale of 8th and 16th shares, which present temptations to the lower orders of the people. On the *humbugs* lately advertised in the form of Public Companies, he bestows the ridicule which they merit.

Mo-y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 34. *Jesus the Son of Joseph:* delivered before the General Baptist Assembly at their annual Meeting in Worship Street, London, May 19, 1807. By A. Bennet. 12mo. 1s. Johnson.

This preacher pleads the call of duty for delivering himself without reserve on the present subject, and declares that he is indifferent to the frowns that he may excite while he is fortified by a good conscience. Contrary to the general opinion, he labours to shew that 'Jesus is the natural and legitimate son of Joseph, which (he says) must have been the case if he was the son or descended from the stock of David, for the Jews kept no genealogies in the female line.' We are also reminded that Christ is in several places called the carpenter's son, and that he often terms himself the son of man. Mr. Bennet

quotes Mr. Stone's Sermon, and in part avails himself of that writer's arguments against the miraculous conception.

In the Dedication, we are informed, on the authority of Dr. Priestley, that the disbelief of this doctrine was not confined to the Jewish christians, but probably extended to the majority of the Gentile converts in the time of Justin Martyr: but, if this were the fact, how are we to account for the following Question and Answer in that Father's *Quæstiones & Responsiones ad Orthodoxos?*

ΕΡΩΤΗΣΙΣ. ξζ (67) Επειδὴ ὁ Ησαίας εἰς τὸν δεσπότην Κύριον προφητεύων φησὶ, τὴν γενεὰν αὐτου τίς διηγήσεται; επὶ δυςδιηγήτῳ ἄρα ἢ αδιηγήτῳ της γένεας, καὶ επι της θεότητος, τῆς σαρκὸς ταύτην ἐκληπτέον τὴν λεξιν;

ΑΠΟΚΡΙΣΙΣ. Η μὲν κατὰ σάρκα γέννησις τῳ Χριςῷ γενεαλογεῖται, καὶ ὁ τρόπος ταύτης ἐν γραφικῇ διηγησει καταγγέλλεται· ἐκ πνεύματος γὰρ ἁγίου καὶ τῆς παρθένου Μαρίας· ἡ δε κατα την θεοτητα αυτου γέννησίς ἐστιν ἀγενεαλόγητος. κ. τ. λ.

We offer no comment, because we mean not to enter into the controversy. Mo-y.

Art. 35. *The Uncertainty of the Morrow.* The Substance of a Sermon preached at Fulham Church, in the Afternoon of Sunday the 13th of September 1807, on Occasion of the late awful Fire in the Premises of John Ord, Esq., by which his principal Gardener was burnt to Death. By the Rev. John Owen, M.A., Curate of Fulham, Middlesex. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Of the melancholy event recorded in this title, a very serious and impressive improvement is made by the preacher; who, with a deep feeling of the importance of religion to dying men, unites those popular talents which are necessary to enforce the due consideration of it on his fellow-creatures. Dº

CORRESPONDENCE.

Agrestis seems not be aware that we never rely on anonymous communications. If he will trust his address in a letter to *the Editor of the M. R.* at Mr. Becket's, he may depend on secrecy, and shall receive a private reply. to

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We are always glad to hear from sensible and liberal correspondents: but *Veritas* will easily conceive that we have not time for protracted debate.

The work mentioned in a letter signed *J. Sim* will not be overlooked.

We shall endeavour to accomplish the object suggested by our friend B. Z.

Errors, pp. 243, 263, 299, 307, 320, 323, 336.